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ABSTRACT

A product of a research project designed to improve the teaching effectiveness of vocational teachers of disadvantaged students, this handbook includes the specific procedures and materials that can be utilized in an inservice program for vocational teachers of disadvantaged youth. (The final report of this project is contained in a separate document.) The program is divided into six instructional sessions with each session encompassing two areas of study: Aggressive behavior, classroom interaction, withdrawal behavior, classroom management, supporting behavior, teacher language, reciprocating behavior, instructional concepts, closing behavior, group processes, theory, and role playing. The handbook contains all the informational notes, directions, and practice exercises necessary for each session. The facilitator's guide is also included in the handbook and contains directions, teaching aids, worksheet and transcript answers, and source of materials information for each of the six sessions. The units are designed so that, with minor procedural modifications, they can be studied and completed either during a scheduled inservice meeting or by an individual at home. (BM)

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An Inservice Program For Vocational Teachers Of The Disadvantaged

Handbook

Research Project In Vocational Education
Conducted Under
Part C of Public Law 90-576

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

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PREFACE

This handbook is the result of a research project, "The Development and Validation of an Inservice Program For Vocational Teachers of The Disadvantaged", conducted by The Center for Career and Vocational Teacher Education at Western Kentucky University. The project was funded by the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

A vast majority of the material presented herein has not been authored by the researchers and has been so indicated. A complete list of the source of these materials can be found in the Facilitator's Guide. Since materials had already been developed which presented techniques and concepts desired to be incorporated in the inservice, our task was mainly one of locating these materials and making modifications, where necessary, for convenient presentation.

Since the inservice was conducted in six sessions during its development in the research project, inservice materials are thus separated accordingly in Supplements A-F. The materials presented in these six supplements contain all informational notes, directions, and practice exercises necessary for the inservice participant to work through a particular section. The supplements have been designed so that with minor procedural modifications, a supplement can be studied and completed either during a scheduled inservice meeting or by an individual at home.

The last section of the handbook, the Facilitator's Guide (Supplement G), has been developed to aid the inservice leader in conducting the inservice program. This supplement contains directions, teaching aids, worksheet and transcript answers, and source of materials information for each supplement.

It should be remembered that the ideas, concept, techniques, and manner of presentation are nothing more than suggestions. The inservice facilitator is encouraged to make those modifications and changes necessary to best meet the needs of the inservice participants.

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SUPPLEMENT A

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR
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SESSION I

Overview

Session I begins with the film "Aggressive Behavior". The film presents examples of aggressive behavior sometimes exhibited in the classroom by the teacher or students. A worksheet is utilized to aid viewers in recognizing and controlling aggressive behavior.

"Classroom Interaction", containing four subtopics, has several helpful methods to bring teacher and student into a more comfortable learning environment. The first subtopic, "Using Student Ideas", suggests six methods for acknowledging or acting upon student ideas. Another subtopic, "Lesson Organization", helps a teacher understand the fundamentals of an organized lesson which contributes to the ease of learning for the students. The subtopic, "Praise and Corrective Feedback", helps the teacher become familiar with verbal, non-verbal, and token ways of commending students and methods of facilitating incorrect student responses into a positive learning force. The last subtopic, "Questioning", suggests various levels of student questioning procedures that can be used to test the cognitive development of students on subject matter.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Aggressive Behavior" and "Classroom Interaction". "Classroom Interaction" has four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may complete them either individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find thorough directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Aggressive Behavior *

1. Read and study the definition of "Aggressive Behavior".
2. Complete in your own words the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Work in small groups to complete the worksheet exercises.
5. From film observations, complete the Post-Viewing Activities.
6. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing Activities with the program facilitator.
7. Read, study and provide the necessary information for the exercise in the section, "Some More Thoughts About Aggressive Behavior".
8. Review one of your classes and do the section "Now Use The Concept For Yourself".
9. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Classroom Interaction*

A. Using Student Ideas

1. Read and study the introduction "Using Student Ideas in Teaching".
2. Conclude this subtopic by supplying the necessary information for the transcript, "Using Student Ideas".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

B. Lesson Organization

1. Read and study the introduction "Lesson Organization In Teaching".
2. Read and study "Teacher Behaviors Involved in Lesson Organization".
3. Follow the directions given and work in small groups to complete the transcript "Lesson Organization".
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Praise and Corrective Feedback

1. Read and study the introduction "Praise and Corrective Feedback in Teaching".
2. Supply the necessary information for the exercise "Praise".
3. Do the matching exercise "Corrective Feedback".
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

D. Questioning

1. Read and study the introduction "Using Questions in Teaching".
2. Read and study "Classroom Interaction-Questioning".
3. Complete the transcript "Questioning" in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

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* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR*

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR: "...destructive or hostile action, often as a consequence of frustration(annoyance, confusion, anger engendered by being thwarted, disappointed, defeated, threatened)." Edward Hilgard, Introduction to Psychology (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1953), p. 591, says:

All human beings exhibit aggressive behavior - for one of two reasons: either as a coping response to an overwhelming stimulus or as an effort to gain control over the behavior of another.

Every teacher has a responsibility to learn to recognize aggressive behavior in himself - and to control it. Only then can he generate a classroom climate that will foster security, creativity and accomplishment in pupils.

I. PREVIEWING ACTIVITIES

Write what YOU think aggressive behavior is:

____

____

____

____

Describe the visible characteristics:

____

____

____

____

II. NOW VIEW THE FILM: AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR

III. POST-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

The activities to follow will help you to become more observant, to further develop the capability to identify aggressive behavior. Increased awareness should help you better control your own aggressive behavior and to understand and manage such behavior in others.

State the definition for aggressive behavior(as used in this film):

List the aggressive behavior you observed in the film.

IV. SOME MORE THOUGHTS ABOUT AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR

FRUSTRATION: Frustration is a state of heightened psychic tension - as stated of stress the heightened tension demands release. Aggression (overt, hostile destructive behavior) is a principal means of tension reduction.

TYPES OF FRUSTRATION: The aggressive behavior may be (a) direct action against the individual or object that is the source of frustration; (b) displaced action against an innocent person or object rather than against the actual or intangible cause of the frustration. Ernest Hilgard, Introduction to Psychology, (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1953), pp. 180-85

Think back over your behavior during the last week. List five things you did that you would now label as aggressive behavior.

What caused you to be aggressive?

Aggressive Behavior	Causes
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

V. NOW USE THE CONCEPT FOR YOURSELF

Choose a class period which you consider "difficult." Look for three instances of your own aggressive behavior. Immediately after the class period fill out the chart below.

1. Use Column A to describe your aggressive behaviors.
2. Record pupil responses (Column B).
3. Fill out Columns C and D.

   Column D asks you to consider how you could have acted differently. Remember, you can do more than "bite your tongue." You can plan ahead. You can take the trouble to establish relationships or activities in which conflict or tension is reduced.

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

A	B	C	D
Teacher Behavior	Pupil Response	Why Was I Aggressive?	How Could I Have Acted Differently?
INSTANCE 1	△ Open Hostilities △ Withdrawal △ Other		
INSTANCE 2	△ Open Hostilities △ Withdrawal △ Other		
INSTANCE 3	△ Open Hostilities △ Withdrawal △ Other		

USING STUDENT IDEAS IN TEACHING*

It is sometimes very hard to use student ideas. Though teachers are usually well-meaning they often squelch student responses; it is easier to correct a wrong answer immediately or get information yourself than to go through the often long process of helping the student find the answer himself.

To use student ideas effectively, one must make a commitment first to the value of having students express, discuss, and respond to ideas put forth by other students and by the teacher. Fundamental, then, to using student ideas is an attitude of respect for the students' opinions, beliefs, and interpretations. This kind of respect is seen in the behavior of the indirect teacher, as defined by research workers who have studied teaching styles. It is the indirect teacher who is more prone to use student ideas, discuss student feelings, and praise and encourage many different kinds of student responses. In general this is the teacher who does not do very much lecturing or exert undue direction in a particular learning situation. The principle which we believe to be true is that students of the teacher who uses their ideas often are likely to achieve higher and like school better than students of the teacher who does not use student ideas.

In a lesson designed to elicit student responses of one sort of another we believe that the teacher can use the students' ideas by responding to the student in one or two different ways. The first way is through acknowledging ideas. This general category seems to be composed of four subcategories of teacher response. These are:

(a) simple acknowledgement

(b) reinforcement

(c) restatement

(d) summarization.

The second way a teacher can respond is by acting upon student ideas. This category of teacher response seems to be made up of two subcategories:

(a) application

(b) comparison.

These different categories of teaching behavior are elaborated on below.

Acknowledgement

Simple acknowledgement: The first way to acknowledge ideas is through simple verbal statements such as "I get it," "I see what you mean," "Do you all see what he means?" etc. Thus no evaluation of the idea is given but the basic elements of the idea are acknowledged simply for the students.

Reinforcement: A second way that a teacher may acknowledge a student's idea is by reinforcing that idea. He may say, "That was a good idea," or "That's interesting," etc. Reinforcement may also be given to part of a student response, such as when a teacher says, "Well, I'm not sure that's all relevant (or accurate), but what you said about his motives is worth considering carefully." In this way the teacher focuses and selects certain aspects of ideas that are worth working with. Putting a student's ideas on the board is reinforcement by giving him public recognition.

Reinforcement of student ideas follows well-accepted practice for the shaping or continuation of certain kinds of behavior. In the case of shaping, reinforcement may be used to produce a higher cognitive level of verbally stated ideas from students. Shaping takes place when the teacher selects and focuses on only parts of student ideas, conveying the information that what will be reinforced are only task-specific kinds of ideas and opinions. Student behavior can, of course, be maintained through the use of reinforcement of ideas. When students are assured that certain of their behaviors will be greeted by a positive kind of teacher response, then the liklihood that those behaviors will be repeated is increased. Should the teacher stop reinforcing the production of these ideas one can anticipate a drop-off in the frequency of student responding. Also, should reinforcement be given for any ideas the frequency of divergent responses may be increased. This may be good, or bad, depending on the goals of the lesson. Certainly the convergent responses called for in one kind of lesson would be poor quality responses in other contexts.

Restatement: A third way that a teacher can acknowledge his students' ideas is through repeating, modifying, rephrasing, or putting ideas into other words. These are all possible ways of recognizing an idea and showing its importance. For example, suppose a student said that "America's withdrawal from Vietnam is being conducted too slowly." A teacher can acknowledge the idea by responding as follows: "You say the withdrawal is being conducted too slowly," or "You think withdrawal isn't fast enough? " or "So, you're saying that American troops should be brought home soon," etc. By using any of these techniques--repetition, modification, rephrasing, or using other words--the teacher is acknowledging the basic idea. He is either reshaping the idea for use in some way, or putting it into a form which in his judgement would allow better use. Or, the teacher may merely be restating the idea in order to enhance its validity as an idea to be used in further discussion.

Summarization: A fourth and final way in which an idea can be acknowledged by a teacher is through summarization. Either a single idea or a set of related ideas may be brought together by a teacher or student in some summary fashion. For example, a teacher may say, "Then you believe that (a) we should conduct the experiment, (b) we should use beans and not carrots, and (c) we should all take turns watering." In this way the teacher is summarizing a discussion by a class and has brought the set of ideas into focus.

Acting Upon Ideas

A second major way in which student ideas and responses can be used is, perhaps, the crux of what we mean by using student ideas. The teacher responses noted above acknowledge the idea. The teacher responses to be discussed below actually act upon ideas in some fashion.

Application: The first of the ways that a teacher can act upon an idea is by application. For example, a teacher might say, "Okay, go do it," or "Let's follow that line of thought and see where it leads us," or "What's the next step?", etc. Each of these examples are verbal statements by a teacher that forces the student or the class to take the next logical steps: applying the ideas which have come forth.

Comparison: One other way that a teacher can act upon students' ideas is through comparison of ideas. For example, a teacher may say, "How does your statement compare with Stanley's?" or "Wasn't that what Deborah had to say?" or "Would Thoreau have agreed with that interpretation?", etc. Another way an idea is compared is with the facts. Thus a teacher may say, "Is that really so?" or "What do some of you others think of that?" The intent is to examine the idea in comparison with other factors. As long as ideas are being examined and compared they are truly being used. If the student idea gets lost, or the teacher imposes many of his own ideas on the situation or discussion, then it becomes simple lecturing or teacher talk or one kind or another.

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TRANSCRIPT
USING STUDENT IDEAS*

Directions:- Below is a transcript of a classroom discussion. Each underlined teacher behavior is an example of one of the six categories of "Using Student Ideas." In the left margin, identify which category you feel is being illustrated. List a category for each underlined word or phrase.

T: Recently two oil tankers collided in San Francisco Bay, and they made a huge oil spill. What do you think you could do to deal with the problem? What do you think? Jay? (children raise hands)

S: Clean up the birds.

(1) (2) (3) T: Clean up the birds? Okay. (writes on the board) Let's get that. What else? What would you do to deal with this problem of oil spill?

S: Probably send some rags or some stuff down there so they could sop it up.

(4) T: Okay. (asks for hands) Virginia?

S: You could make a machine that could... make the oil go away, like, suck it all up and leave the water there or something.

(5) (6) T: Kind of like a vacuum cleaner, you mean? (writes on board)

S: Yeah.

T: Don't they have something like that? Don't they have a vacuum cleaner?

S: Yes, I think they do, but it's not very uh...

(7) (8) T: You don't think much of the vacuum cleaner? So we could make better clean-up machines, is that what you mean? Virginia?

(9) S: Uh-huh. (teacher writes on board)

T: Murray?

S: It'll make more money for the taxpayers if they do that.

(10) T: You don't like the idea of a better clean-up machine. Why not?

S: Cause it'd be more for the taxpayers to pay. That'd make 'em pay more taxes.

(11) T: What do you think? Frank?

S: Well, why shouldn't the taxpayers just want to have it cleaned up just as much as any other person? They all pay taxes, why don't they just pay more taxes and clean it up?

(12) T: What do you think, Murray? Do you like Frank's idea? Why? Jay, do you have something to add to that?

S: Well, no, but they could use mechanical ... machines to guide the ships through instead of relying on the captain to steer it.

(13) (14) T: Okay. ((writes on board)) Oh, somebody's excited. What was that? Wanda?

S: They could have people looking out over to make sure that there is, there isn't no ships coming the other way so they won't crash into each other.

T: You like that?

S: Uh-huh.

T: What do we call them?

S: Watch-outs.

(15) (16) T: What should I call them -- watch-outs? ((Writes on board))

S: Yeah.

T: All right. Steve?

S: Why not just stop using oil in this country?

(17) (18) T: Oh. What do you think? (hands) You've got an idea there.

S: I disagree because look at all the cars there are in the United States and think of all the people that work for oil companies and look how many people would be out of jobs.

(19) T: Marie, you look worried about it too. What?

S: Well, if they do that what will the ships be using and most people use it every day in different ways, too.

(20) T: Steve, what was it you suggested?

S: Why not stop using oil in this country.

(21) T: You still don't, oh, Jeff, you still don't think that's a good idea? You're shaking your head. (hand) Jay?

S: Well, unless somebody invents a dev-, a motor or something to drive cars that had no moving parts, you couldn't omit oil.

(22) T: Steve, it's your idea, you want to ..

S: Well, what about in smaller quantities? Do we really need as much as we have right now?

(23) T: Jeff, (pointing at Jeff) would that satisfy you -- you still look a little ...

S: I don't know, because there would be lots of people still out of work at the oil companies.

(24) T: Uh-huh Tim?

S: Why don't we just use pipes? You know, we use them but why don't we put double pipes over them, you know ...

(25) T: Instead of putting the oil in tankers?

S: Yeah?

(26) (27) T: All right, let's get Steve's idea up here first -- that was to ...

S: Stop using oil.

(28) (29) (30) T: Stop using oil. Your idea Tim, is to stop using tankers, isn't it? And to use pipes. (puts on board)

S: We use pipes but only we need double pipes in case their inside pipes break.

(31) T: Was your idea to stop using tankers to carry oil?

S: Yeah.

(32) T: What do you think of that? (points at Jay) Jay?

S: Well, if one's going to break, the other one's going to break, more or less, like if an earthquake or something, you break both of them, not just the inner one.

S: Yeah.

(33) T: You like that idea, Wanda?

S: No, it'll break. The pipes'll break. If you have an earthquake--just like he's talking about.

T: (points at Jimmy) Jimmy, you have a notion.

S: Why don't we use a plane to carry the oil?

T: Marie?

S: Can't they put a plastic one?

(34) T: Plastic what?

S: Tube, to carry the oil in.

(35) T: What do you think? Why not-- you don't -- you're shaking your head.

S: They'd break, they'd break easier.. than the pipes they're using now.

(36) T: Steve, you look puzzled.

S. It would be as strong as metals like they would use because it'd be a lot more brittle. (Hand is raised.)

T: Jay?

S: Well, if you're going to use flexible plastic it wouldn't have to be strong--it'd give with the earthquake or something.

(37) (38) (39) (40) (41) T: All right we have two ideas here now. One was to use plastic pipes and one was to use planes. Wasn't your idea to use planes, Dave? All right let's get this up.

. . .

We've moved on now from your ideas and we're trying to see
(42) what it is you've thought up. Can't you see how some of these have the same general idea about them? Steve?

S: What about the lighting ships and the guide ...

(43) T: Oh, that's it. Now how do these fit together?

S: Well, the light would help the guide to watch.

(Teacher points to board as she talks.)

(44) T: All right, these are all helping ideas, aren't they, using oil tankers still but making their traffic safer. All right. Let's see--I'll put down "OT" so you'll know that it's a safe oil tanker. Okay. Lighting ships, then, would be a
(45) safety factor. Are there any other safety factors? Virginia?

S: The watch-outs.

T: Yes, watch-outs. What else?

S. The foghorns.

T: Foghorns? Which one is that? Here we go ...

(46) T: We have first ideas to make the tankers safe, to make the
traffic safe. Then if there is an accident you have ideas
for clean-up. (Points to question regarding not using oil.)
(47) What is this idea? What big idea does this have? Jay?

S: Well, stop using oil--it's kind of different from all the
others.

T: Yes, and how is it different?

S: It's not using oil period, and it's just not like the other
ones--they all have using oil and that one, it just says
preventing ...

T: This is going to do away with the whole problem, isn't it?
of oil spill. So we have the idea of safety, so there won't
be an accident. (Categorizes on board.) We have the idea
(48) of clean-up--better clean-up--in case there is an accident.
And this third idea you had was to do away with oil so
that there wouldn't be an accident at all.

LESSON ORGANIZATION IN TEACHING *

This section is designed to provide a teaching supervisor with some practical suggestions about introducing organization into teaching. It should aid in discussions of teaching, but is not meant to be exhaustive, merely provocative. The accompanying Protocol material is meant to stimulate discussion. Viewers of that Protocol should formulate their own plans and reach their own conclusions about the use of organization in teaching. The material that follows is to aid the supervisor in leading discussions which will clarify the use of organization, and aid the student in understanding and analyzing the concepts involved, so that the principle is better mastered. The principle may be stated as follows: when a teacher is perceived as a good organizer of the learning environment, it is likely that there will be an increase in student achievement and that students will develop a more positive attitude about the class and the competency of the teacher.

The major concept to understand is that of lesson organization. We consider the term "well organized" to be a rating given to a teacher who exhibits some or many of the characteristics described below.

Though it sounds obvious, the teacher should insure that a lesson starts off in the desired direction. One way to do this is to review previous material and set the stage for the current material. In this way, perhaps the structure of the curriculum can be made more explicit for the learner. Reviewing and previewing activities can accomplish this job. Subsequent instruction can sometimes be aided by the use of a series of lower-order questions. These questions provide feedback to the instructor about the level of knowledge in the class so that instruction on a topic may be geared to the right level of understanding. This could, potentially, give rise to ratings of the teacher as a "good explainer". Part of that rating is based on the ability of the teacher to communicate to students at their own level, one of the clarity dimensions which also indicates organization.

A well organized teacher insures that the subject matter he is concerned with is the major focus of discussion. This is called task orientation. It is appropriate to be task oriented at the beginning of a lesson, such as when a teacher calls students to attention, or says "Okay, let's get busy now." During a lesson, task orientation is reflected in teacher statements like "You're getting off the subject" or "Let's go on if we can," etc. Task oriented behavior need not be rigid adherence to a curriculum nor should it prevent some horsing around at the beginning of a lesson. It merely is teacher behavior which insures that some semblance of businesslike teaching and learning takes place over the long haul.

Another way to show organization in the beginning of a lesson is to present to the students organizing concepts around which they can integrate the subsequent presentation of material. For example, if the lesson were on myths, the teacher might ask students to apply what they learn from certain common and recurring mythological events to the stories about the lives of Buddha, Jesus, and Lincoln. Or, students may be asked to look for the signs of royal birth, assassination, hard trials, etc. in religious, political, and industrial folk heroes. Or, simply, students may be asked to compare the mythical elements in the life of King Arthur with the known events in his life. Though the form of the advance organizer might vary, when it is used it can provide structure for the student. It not only shows the teacher as well organized but also helps organize material for the student.

Another method of showing organization at the start of a lesson is to explicitly state the aims and goals of the lesson. Thus, rather than plunging into a lesson or starting with a statement like "Today we'll talk of the French economy," a teacher may begin by stating:

> "After this discussion and talk you should be able to state three of France's most important imports and three of her most important exports. Further, you will be able to list the four countries most dependent on France for markets or for goods. Finally, you should be able to write of the effects on the French economy of the European Economic Community."

These behavioral objectives inform the student of exactly what is expected of him for this lesson. A teacher who can state such explicit goals and then provide a lesson which accomplishes most of these goals for most of the students is extremely well organized.

Part of what is meant by "well organized" is the air of efficiency which permeates a class where the teacher is personally highly organized. Personal habits like having pictures to illustrate a topic, or using an overhead projector to show graphs or other important material contribute to high rating of the teacher's organization. Other aspects of *personal organization* show in the teacher who knows how much time to spend on one topic or with one student before moving on. It shows in having papers graded on time and tests returned with informative feedback, rather than just a grade. The highly organized teacher anticipates many of the needs which will arise during a lesson, prepares lists of extra readings or assignments in advance, and has references handy in order to respond to any student requests.

During the lesson the organized teacher, with clear goals in mind, can *signal the end of one segment and the beginning of another*. In this way students are provided with reference points so that they may know where the lesson is, in light of where it is going.

During the lesson the teacher can also *emphasize important aspects* of the material. Either verbal emphasis like "Now this is important," or visual emphasis such as listing key words on the board can be used. When emphasis is given to the material that really does count, the lesson is usually perceived to be task relevant, targetted directly on course, etc.

A rating of the organization of a lesson is also greatly affected by how the lesson ends. The inclusion of a *summary* in the presentation of material serves to tie up the basic lesson content and again show the structure or flow of what has been presented.

If questions were asked of the students at the beginning of the lesson to serve as organizers, then by the end of the lesson they should be answered.

When objectives are reached, a lesson or lesson segment should be ended quickly. There is no need to elaborate and dwell on material which has already been mastered. The well organized teacher knows when to stop.

Organization is also in evidence when deliberate attempts to tie material to other aspects of the curriculum are made. Thus a teacher might note that a lesson on the French economy can tell us things about national economies in general; or that the study of the French economy points up the interdependence among events in man made systems, which is analogous to the interdependence among events in natural systems, like the water cycle, etc. These deliberate attempts to tie a lesson to other courses or to material that was presented earlier or is yet to be presented "anchor" the lesson and provide for the student the widest possible associative net. This anchoring is also part of what we mean when we say a teacher is "well organized."

All of the above kinds of teacher behavior contribute to a rating of well organized for teachers.

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Teacher Behaviors Involved In Lesson Organization*

Components:

1) Specification of Objectives- clearly stated objectives for a lesson.

2) Review- context for students to organize the events which are to transpire.

3) Task Orientation- bringing the class to attention and maintaining attention throughout the lesson.

4) Signals of Transition- words and actions that tell one part of the lesson is ending and another part is beginning.

5) Emphasis- emphasis upon particular words or ideas to be learned.

6) Clarity of explanation

7) Check for student comprehension.

8) Personal organization of teacher- businesslike, achievement-oriented, concerned with intellecutual or cognitive content; systematic, responsible, prepared and poised.

9) Summary- review at the end of a lesson.

TRANSCRIPT
LESSON ORGANIZATION*

Directions: Each of the following teacher statements is an example of one of the nine components of lesson organization. Beside each statement, identify which component of organization you think it represents.

1. Let me give you the definition of a capital good. Let me give you a definition. Capital goods are any goods which are man made, which when used are not themselves used up in the process.

2. Okay, fine, alright. Now, if we tried to explain McCarthy's defeat, could you now be able to give several factors, uh, let's say three factors that explain why he goes down the tubes ultimately? Is that clear now? Okay, not clear? Alright. Suppose we put it in the framework of this kind of a question. What ...

3. Okay, today we have begun to find out who helps the President in solving the problems he faces. You'll find out tonight in your homework assignment who these others are and what they do to help. Tomorrow the class will hear the reports from you youngsters who have done the research. Do you have any questions?

4. Right! It's the second time that really makes it important.

5. You should be able to, after this lesson today, to list a number of surpluses and to be able to tell which one is most important. In addition, you should be able to define capital goods and social overhead capital.

6. Alright, good. Cities of Refuge were cities set aside for two types of people: those who were guilty of unpremeditated murder or accidental death, causing the accidental death of someone else, and soldiers. Soldiers who went out to fight under Yahweh's law killed people. But they were free of any kind of blood revenge by virtue of these Cities of Refuge that Yahweh had established. Ah, actually, what it came down to, the solder out of his first month's pay could--he plunked down a few coins which went into the treasuries of these cities, and that in effect, I shouldn't say bought him off, but in effect it did. It meant that he was, it was symbolic of his having gone to the City of Refuge and spent some time there. So he was innocent then.

7. Last time in looking at the Ten Commandments we saw that there was a great similarity between the Ten Commandments and Hammurabi's Code. Today we're going to go a little bit further.

8. Any questions about that? That's due Thursday.

9. Alright, well, we've talked of surpluses and we've talked of capital goods; now let us take a look at the one precondition for take-off, which is social overhead capital.

10. T: Do you have another example?

S: All the money we're spending on defense.

T: Okay.

S: What?

S: On defense, like, you know, Vietnam. We're not getting anything out of that, a bunch of dead people.

T: Dave, you're getting off the subject. We don't want to get into the social aspects of fighting yet--we'll save that til we get to our next class.

11. Okay, then we elaborated on several reasons that explain why McCarthy did gain the success which he did, including this last possible economic reason. Earlier in the period we examined some of the factors in McCarthy's defeat. And on your test tomorrow, causal explanations, either for the defeat or the success; it is impossible for me to overemphasize.

12. Well, let's see if we can find out about some others that help the President. [Teacher raises map to show list of Presidential helpers written on blackboard.] Now here's your homework assignment. You're to find out what these people do to help the President. Do we have some volunteers?

13. And by the end of the period today you should have--you should be able to tell me three, at least three modern laws that come ultimately from the book of Exodus or earlier. You'll have an opportunity in your homework to do more than this, but I'd like--I think by the end of the period each of you should be able to identify three modern legal areas.

14. So we've seen today some examples of laws which we have today which can be traced back to the Old Testament: workmen's compensation, negligence, laws protecting workers, and finally, of course, and most important, the Lex Taliones, the idea that the punishment must be commensurate with the crime.

15. Right! Right! Now that's crucial to the understanding of this idea.

16. Now, today when we're done we'll know more about who helps the President to do these things. Now keep this in mind: these are big problems and one man can't do it all, so there must be ways that he can get help. Now we'll try to find out, try to understand what it's like to be President. Let's see if we can name some of the helpers.

17. Now the homework for tomorrow is on the board. Exodus 33 to 34. The law analysis is due Thursday and that's what I'll be passing out now. If you'll do that now, Brian? What I'm going to ask you to do in this, I've listed on these dittoes three columns. In the first column I've given the Old Testament passage ...

18. Let's go on if we can.

19. Okay, now yesterday our discussion centered around the issue of whether one should testify before a Congressional Committee or not during McCarthy's time. And there were some main ideas that came out; that is, factors which influenced a person's decision as to whether he would testify. What were some of those factors?

20. Okay, now we're through with some of the specific examples, some of the smaller examples in Exodus, and we're gonna move on now to a much larger concept, one that is probably the most important legal concept in the Old Testament. That is what's called the Lex Taliones.

PRAISE AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN TEACHING*

Praise

A student's need for commendation from the teacher is recognized by all educators and forms part of the preparation of each future teacher. Teachers can see early in their career that students are more responsive and successful when commendation is generously provided. When a student succeeds and is praised, his feelings of competency are strengthened. He will be more confident to step further. If on the other hand his success is ignored, he may think that his own achievement was "really not so great." And he may not be anxious to repeat the achievement. The effect of praise will vary with each student. A student who is clever, popular and secure may not need positive reinforcement for each success. But a student who often fails academically and socially may relish and savor his memory of an achievement which resulted in praise. In either case, and for the vast area in between the extremes, students will generally respond affirmatively to praise. Adequate commendation will often have carry-over effects. By praising positive behavior,the student's citizenship, his academic performance, his social relationships, and his self-image will be strengthened.

Verbal praise is the most easily recognized type of praise. Several teacher responses which exemplify verbal praise are:

Wonderful!
That is well organized.
Your handwriting is neat.
I like your promptness.
You wear attractive dresses.
Good.

A smile, blush, or inner satisfaction is the usual student response. As a teacher learns to give honest, spontaneous verbal praise he will be apt to strengthen rapport with the class members. To just think the expression of praise is not adequate. Unless the approbation is expressed, the student will not benefit by the teacher's reaction. For example:

While grading a student's paper the teacher writes "good" in her book.

In a discussion with other teachers, one teacher defends a student's behavior.

The student receives a higher grade because of good penmanship.

Although these statements reflect favorable attitudes toward the student, he is unaware of their occurrence. In such cases his behavior is not changed. Praise can be used to strengthen already existing behavior patterns, or it can be used to shape behavior patterns which are considered desirable.

Praise can be conveyed without words. Most teachers will agree that they have neither the time nor the inclination to verbalize every positive reaction to the behavior of each student. To constantly vocalize praise may not only be tedious for the teacher, but it may seem phoney to the students. Nonverbal positive reinforcement may be in the form of a smile, a nod, a handshake, a pat, a hug, or other physical demonstration relaying the affirmative impression. These nonverbal encouragements may be more satisfactory to shy students as they are often more subtle and may be performed without the other class members being aware of them. The extent and type of praise will also depend upon the conduct being approved. A small achievement may merit nonverbal praise, while a major achievement may call for verbal attention.

A third type of praise comes in the form of tokens. Tokens may include trophies, stars on a chart, rewards of more enjoyable tasks, "+" marks, merit points, etc. The system of rewards and punishments has long been used in education. These materials focus only on the rewarding possibilities for a teacher. A spanking is the historical token of negative behavior; a gold star has classically symbolized excellent behavior. Tokens, including grades, are a strong factor in determining students' actions. In the secondary schools especially, students are not as concerned about "pleasing the teacher" as they are about getting a diploma or scholarship, two very significant tokens. Most teachers have seen a sudden spurt of effort from students who were told they "bordered between an A and a B." Students seek the affirmation that is inherent in the high grades. Further, nonverbal expressions of smiles and verbal approval often accompany the high grade token.

An understanding of proper conditions for giving praise will make the praise seem natural and will eliminate embarrassment. A teacher usually praises academic achievement. That is important, especially to students who seldom achieve. But a teacher must also teach accepted social behavior. A most effective way of regulating social action is to laud good conduct and react negatively or not at all to unacceptable social behavior. Such factors as dress standards, morality, use of drugs, etc. may be influenced by the attitudes conveyed by the teacher. In order to avoid didacticism, a teacher may choose verbal and nonverbal means to express praise or reproach. Examples of social praise could include:

> Encouraging student concern for ecology by writing a letter to a local newspaper applauding student involvement.
>
> Praising students for establishing personal dress standards without school control.
>
> Allowing students to leave the classroom without a hall pass.

Another condition for praise would be the presence or absence of witnesses. A teacher may wish to compliment a girl's hair style, but would find it inappropriate to call the attention of other students to the single student. A smile may be all that is necessary to let the girl know her appearance is pleasing. Private praise is often possible before or after class session. It is quite common for a student to place herself within the range of the teacher to allow the teacher to react. Students, especially in grade school, expect and look forward to the private praise a teacher frequently gives for outstanding social and academic behavior. It is important to publicly praise many outstanding actions (especially if the behavior occurs outside the realm of the classmates). A track or other sports victory, an election victory, or outstanding academic success often warrants public praise from the teacher. It serves several purposes: (1) lets the student know that the teacher is aware of the achievement, (2) alerts classmates to the situation so they also can express praise, and (3) reinforces the student's behavior so he will want to achieve again. A seemingly small success of a student unused to success may warrant classroom recognition to serve the same purposes listed above.

Praise to an entire group can be used to control the actions of the group. A self-fulfilling prophecy is involved. If the teacher tells a class how good they are, the students may feel good and, thus, act good. The converse of this is true also - a class told that it is noisy and slow to learn may express rebellion by being noisy and reluctant to achieve. Praise to the whole group is in order when the majority of the class achieves for a period of time or does a group project well. The class is also apt to work harder if the teacher coaxes the students with such phrases as, "I know you can do this exercise today," or "I think you are ready to tackle this harder problem." Telling the class members that they are generally neat and tidy will promote continued care. Such praise establishes a climate that often makes the class willing to work with the teacher to learn.

Most praise relates to the behavior of students. In fact, it is the use of contingent praise which is the most effective in modifying behavior. But a teacher can express praise for circumstances not tied to behavior. Such comments as, "Your eyes are such a nice brown," "I like that shade of ink," "I appreciate this nice, heavy paper," etc. also convey praise. These non-explicit expressions of praise are often helpful when a teacher wants to praise a particular student, but the student has performed no particularly praiseworthy behavior. Even such trivial events as complementing a student's choice of ink may cause the student to think of himself as having good taste and being discriminating. A student may interpret a compliment on his eye-color as meaning, "The teacher thinks I am good-looking. She especially likes my eyes. They are really pretty!"

Praise must be properly timed. Most often a student's praise immediately follows a praiseworthy act. To delay the praise may give the student the feeling that the praise is superficial and perfunctory, that the teacher is "just doing his duty." Delayed praise is often used, however, as in the case of report cards - an example of rewards which are issued periodically. To recall past praiseworthy action may have positive value for a student. It may serve to lift his goals to match previous action and may convey a positive feeling for a teacher who did not forget past achievement. Delayed praise may be appropriate in summarizing the completed work of a unit or term. General good conduct that does not merit daily praise may warrant praise at such a time. Such items as sustained good attendance, constant good citizenship, or consistent happy nature deserve occasional praise.

Teachers, by virtue of their role, are important to students. To receive the approbation of the teacher is vital to the sound academic and emotional well being of many (especially young) students. Often students may worry unproportionately at the withholding of praise by a teacher. Lack of praise can make a student's life miserable. He may feel inadequate and debased without praise or, on the other hand, secure and accepted if he receives appropriate praise.

Corrective Feedback

Feedback that attempts to modify the student's answer when it is either wrong (definitely incorrect) or off target (not a correct, anticipated or appropriate response, but neither is it definitely incorrect) is what we are calling corrective feedback. It is not purely disapproval, but instead tries to channel a student's response such that he can be correct.

Corrective feedback can occur in five different ways:

1. Cueing and prompting: For example, when a teacher says, "What do you think the word 'renaissance' means?", and a student responds with "nature," the teacher can provide cues and prompts by saying "How about re, like in revive or rededicate or reincarnate?" Then the teacher may follow with, "What are some words that start with the nai sounds?" If and when the word "nativity" comes out, the teacher can talk of rebirth as the meaning for renaissance. Thus the teacher has corrected a student response

through cueing, prompting, hints, suggestions and clues of various sorts.

2. Giving directions: Directions may simply be, "Check your answer with the book," or "Pair up with Samuel, he'll show you how it's done," or "Look it up in ...," or "Think about it some more," etc. The key to directions is that there is a command of some sort. The intent of the command by the teacher is to provide help to the students in correcting an answer.

3. Maintaining responses: When a student seems to be on the right track, but has given a wrong response, a teacher may try to get continued responding until a right response is made. A teacher may say, "No, not quite," or "Almost," or "Try again," etc. It is also possible for the teacher to maintain responding through tone of voice, such as a quizzical "What was that?" or "How many?" By conveying disbelief in the first answer through her tone of voice, a teacher may prod a student into continued responding until a correct answer is given. The teacher is not structuring the responding, as in cueing or prompting. Nor is the teacher issuing instructions on how to solve the problem, as in giving directions. In this instance the teacher is trying to help a student to make a correct response when the ability to do so is present, but the student is not quite getting it.

4. Probing: This technique moves a student toward a different response. Some typical probes to an incorrect student answer are "Do you really think that is so?", "If A=B and B=C, why is it possible that A≠B?" "Would that condition change if smoking occurred?" Sometimes probing in these instances is like a Socratic dialogue. Sometimes it is simple persuasion.

By using praise for correct responding and corrective feedback when incorrect responses occur, a teacher is likely to be perceived as a positive person, and one likely to have a positive effect on learning.

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PRAISE EXERCISE*

Directions: Place an X in the column(s) that pertain to the situation described.

	Verbal Praise	Nonverbal Praise	Tokens of Praise	Praise for Academic Behavior	Praise for Social Behavior	Group Praise	Praise of Individual	Praise for Explicit Behavior	Praise for Nonexplicit Behavior	Immediate Praise	Delayed Praise
1. John received the highest citizenship grade.											
2. When Jose finished reading, the teacher applauded loudly.											
3. The teacher told Jose's parents that Jose was an outstanding reader.											
4. After Joan solved the problem, the teacher found no mistakes. So she placed an A above the problem.											
5. The coach said, "You are the best quarterback on the team."											
6. The PE teacher gave extra points to girls who showed good sportsmanship.											
7. "My teacher really seemed to like my dress," said Lori.											
8. The teacher patted my shoulder as I placed the litter in the can.											

	Verbal Praise	Nonverbal Praise	Tokens of Praise	Praise for Academic Behavior	Praise for Social Behavior	Group Praise	Praise of Individual	Praise for Explicit Behavior	Praise for Nonexplicit Behavior	Immediate Praise	Delayed Praise
9. "Your patriotism is contagious," she told the class.											
10. The teacher admired John's choice of costume.											
11. The debators beamed with pride as the principal listed their achievements.											
12. Sally's service at the hospital was described by her English teacher.											
13. A letter of commendation will be sent to the best citizen in the class.											
14. The teacher smiled encouragingly to John as he read the difficult paragraph.											
15. John stood in front of the class as his leadership qualities were itemized.											
16. Mrs. Brown nodded to each student who correctly solved his chalkboard problem.											
17. "Mary uses such pretty colors!" exclaimed her teacher.											
18. "The valedictorian is Susan Brown," announced the principal.											

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK
EXERCISE *

Directions: There are four types of corrective feedback:
(A) cues
(B) directions
(C) probing, and
(D) maintaining responses
Each of the following statements is an example of one type of corrective feedback. You are to identify these teacher statements according to which type of feedback you think it represents.

____ 1. "Are you sure that's the right answer?"

____ 2. "You can find the correct answer in your textbook."

____ 3. "Six? That's not quite it."

____ 4. "Does that answer go along with what Bill said earlier?"

____ 5. "If you study with Judy, I'm sure you'll see the answer."

____ 6. "The answer can be compared with Joan's if you still think you're right."

____ 7. "You say the answer is . . . , but why not look at it this way?"

____ 8. "Suppose Hitler was not chancellor--what would Papen have done?"

____ 9. "You've almost got it, go on."

____ 10. "Your answer is not complete, is it?"

____ 11. "Are you sure that what you have developed discusses all of the causes?"

____ 12. "Perhaps if you focus your attention on the anterior portion you can see the relevant attributes."

____ 13. "Not quite, try again."

____ 14. "Have you considered the outcome of such actions when no one rebels?"

____ 15. "If you apply your hypothesis to a different sample, won't the results change?"

____ 16. "Turn the crystal 45° and see if the answer continues to be the same."

____ 17. "Why don't you reexamine the causes of the Mexican War in light of the Southern desires for more territory?"

USING QUESTIONS IN TEACHING*

Questioning as an instructional technique has been recommended to teachers since Socrates first used it to draw out ideas from students. A steady stream of boods and monographs on the "art of questioning" have appeared over the years. These attest to the belief that appropriate questioning behavior is an important teacher characteristic. A common theme throughout the literature is that questioning is a means by which a teacher stimulates thinking--the means with which she elicits higher order mental processes such as critical judgment. It was John Dewey who pointed out that thinking itself is questioning. It would seem that the critical requirement for a "good" classroom question is that the question prompt the student to use ideas rather than just remember them. The generally accepted premise is that the form of the question serves as the stimulus for eliciting certain kinds of cognitive activities which may range from simple recall to highly complex inferences from data.

Thus one of the first things a potential questioner must learn to recognize is the fact that questions have different characteristics. Among the many types of questions we may distinguish two: those which are factual or lower-order and those which are more complex or higher-order questions. Some people break down the lower-order or memory category into two sub-categories, knowledge and comprehension. Likewise, some people break down the category of higher-order questions into a number of sub-categories such as interpretation, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, etc. The reason for attempting to identify different kinds of questions is quite simple; it is believed that different types of questions produce different kinds of cognitive responses on the part of students.

Not all student responses are cognitive; some can be seen through simple classroom observation. For example, when a teacher asks a simple memory question like, "Who was the sixteenth president of the United States?", students often wildly raise their hands, utter such sounds as "ooh-ooh" which, in general, try to attract the teacher's attention so the student may be called upon. The students are sure they know the answer. They are sure they can deliver a response which the teacher will accept as correct. On the other hand, when a question is highly complex, students will often ask for clarification of the question or show signs of puzzlement or tentativeness in the hand-raising that occurs. These are observable behavioral indicators of the simplicity or complexity of the various questions that are being asked. Thus even through simple observation, and without any access to the cognitive structure of students, we can often see the effects of questions.

Questions can also be asked in certain kinds of sequences. For example, a number of factual questions in a row can be used to establish a certain data base. This can be followed by a higher-order question which incorporates material from the established factual data base. Other strategies might call for simple alternation of lower-order and higher-order questions. The "correctness" or "incorrectness" of using the various strategies is unknown. What is desirable is that the teacher recognize that such strategies do exist.

Another strategy observed in teachers besides the sequencing of questions is the use of "personalizing". Personalizing occurs when a teacher applies rather abstract ideas or historical events to everyday situations that students are familiar with. Thus, though the class may be discussing the unique customs and habits of some tribe, the teacher can make an important anthropological point by asking students if any unique or private behaviors occur within their own family. Certain favorite sayings or customs, etc. might show how each family is in itself a unique culture. Or, when a literary concept as loneliness is being discussed, one might ask students to describe the feelings of loneliness that they might themselves have felt. Personalizing an abstract concept can therefore bring it closer to the students.

In summary, what should be understood about questions is that they vary in type (along any of a number of dimensions), that they have different effects upon students depending upon their simplicity or complexity, and that they can be combined into certain kinds of questioning strategies.

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Classroom Interaction
"Questioning"*

Sander's Taxonomy of Questions

Lower order question	- Memory- student recalls or recognizes information
Higher order questions	Translation- student changes information into a different symbolic form or language. Interpretation- student discovers relationships among facts, generalizations, definitions, values, and skills. Application- student solves a life-like problem requiring both identification of the issue and the selection and use of appropriate generalizations and skills. Analysis- student solves a problem in the light of conscious knowledge of the parts and forms of thinking. Synthesis- student solves a problem which requires original creative thinking. Evaluation- student makes a judgment of good or bad, right or wrong, according to standards which he himself designates.

QUESTIONING TRANSCRIPT *

Directions: Below is a transcript of a classroom discussion. Each teacher question is an example of one of the categories of questioning outlined in Sander's Taxonomy of Questions. To the left of each teacher question, indicate the category that you feel is being illustrated.

---

(1) T: Let's pick up for a minute on something that happened at the beginning of this scene. What prevented, right at the beginning, Huck and Jim from seeing the raft?

S: The fog.

(2) T: The fog. Why couldn't they yell to each other in the fog? (hands) Amanda?

S: Well, Huck said that he couldn't recognize things or recognize voices. And they kept giving hoots to each other (another student: whoops - whoops) whoops to each other.

(3) T: Okay. They gave whoops and they gave hollers but they still couldn't recognize them. Where were Jim and Huck heading? Jennie?

S: Cairo.

(4) T: They were heading towards Cairo. (hands) Why were they heading towards Cairo? Silas?

S: I want to ask a question.

T: Okay, go ahead.

S: Is Cairo the capital of Egypt?

(5) T: Is Cairo the capital of Egypt?

S: Uh-huh.

S: No.

T: Amanda.

S: They were heading towards Cairo 'cause that was in the free states.

(6) T: Okay, that was in the free states. Is there another Cairo in Egypt? Rachelle?

S: Yes, there is.

(7) T: Is it the capital of Egypt?

S: That's what it says in the dictionary.

(8) T: Okay. That's what it says in the dictionary. What trick did Huck play on Jim? Jennie?

S: Umm, he made Jim think that when they lost the raft and when it got -- when they were separated, he made Jim think that it was all a dream.

(9) T: Okay, why did Huck play such a trick on Jim now? Jennie?

S: Umm, because, maybe because he hadn't played a trick in a long time.

(10) T: And was just in a kind of mood to play a trick on somebody and put something over on somebody. Do any of you disagree with that? Do you think that Huck had other motivations for playing such a trick? Nobody disagrees? Timothy?

S: He just came up at the right time and something happened just for that trick.

T: The right time?

S: He knows all these tricks, and you know, he has this trick and he does it.

(11) T: What's the right time? What do you mean by that? Greg?

S: Uh, like he probably had a, you know, had a, wanted to play a trick and he was just waiting for, you know, a chance to do it.

(12) T: Do you ~~dis~~agree with the opinion that Jim held of Huck when he found out the kind of trick that he'd been--that had been played on him?

S: What?

(13) T: Do you agree with the opinion Jim had of Huck, or do you think that he was unjustified in getting so angry and so upset. After all it was just a game, wasn't it? Bonita?

S: I think that, um, would you repeat the question?

T: Sure. I was trying to get at whether you agreed with Jim feeling angry and upset and enraged over the fact that a trick had been played on him.

S: I agree with this opinion because I would have felt bad if somebody did that to me too because, well, I don't like to be played tricks on, especially as bad as the one Huck played on Jim.

(14) T: Can you think of an example of prior to this chapter when Huck had pangs of conscience? After all, he was helping a runaway "nigger", wasn't he?

S: Yes.

T: Laurie.

S: One time he was just about to give Jim up and the man was coming on his boat and he said, he asked Jim, he asked Huck if he has anybody with him and then they said, "What color is he?" and then he stops and thinks about it and then he says he was white.

(15) T: And that was the turning point, wasn't it? Because Huck was just determined that if he'd been brought up right and proper that he wasn't going to turn his best friend in, was he?

As a result of this episode, this raft scene, how does the relationship between Huck and Jim change? Rachelle?

S: Could you repeat the question?

(16) T: Sure. Um. After this scene where Huck finds, you know, plays a trick on Jim and Jim realizes that he's been made a fool out of, how does the relationship between the two boys change? Amanda?

S: Well, at first they had a really, really close relationship and they, well they lost the raft, they were looking for each other but then when Huck played the trick on Jim the relationship kind of turned 'cause, and Jim felt really badly about it and he just kind of left.

(17) T: Okay. Does anyone disagree? Greg?

S: Um. Well, I don't actually disagree but um, they did kind of come a little closer together after, you know, at the end when they both felt, you know, sad about each other.

(18) T: So in other words, you think possibly instead of growing farther apart they're actually brought together. How are they brought together? Laurie?

S: Um, um, they kind of told what they felt for each other and Huck didn't know he didn't--felt that, well, liked him that much, so when he thought he was dead, he was so anxious to see him, um, Huck didn't know he felt, he was so close to Jim. Huck feeling so close to hide.

(19) T: So in other words, a bad scene like that actually brought the two people closer together. Have you ever had an experience like that where you're, say in a fight with your best friend, or you disagree with a teacher and get in a real bad argument with a teacher, and then afterwards, that kind of experience makes you closer to that person? Lisa?

S: Well, Rita and me were outside and we didn't like Vicki that day, we were real mad at her. And so when we were out on the yard she wanted to go get a pizza in the cafeteria and so while she was in there we ran away from her, we were hiding from her. So, uh, so when she got back in the classroom she was feeling all bad and everything and then we made up.

T: And when you made up you felt closer for it?

S: Yes.

(20) T: Okay. What is the meaning of the phrase, "Huck had difficulty humbling himself before a nigger and it took fifteen minutes before he could do so." Bonita?

S: Well, he had to sort of think it over because, well, it wasn't up to his, um, well . . .

T: Can anybody help her with the word to fill in. Timothy?

S: Well he din't, like she said, white people didn't want to apologize to black people and it would be lower and they'd lose their pride.

(21) T: How do the rest of you feel about that kind of situation existing today? Where a white person is embarrassed to humble himself before a black person? Jennie?

S: Um, in some cases people are prejudiced and they feel that they shouldn't humble themselves to someone who doesn't look like them.

(22) T: Okay. Considering what you've said about prejudice, if the raft scene, imagine in your mind, it could have taken place today instead of when it took place. How would it have been different do you suppose? Jennie?

S: Well I don't think Jim would have taken it so seriously 'cause he wouldn't have to run away from slavery.

SUPPLEMENT B

WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOR
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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SESSION II

Overview

Session II begins with the film, "Withdrawal Behavior". Represented in the film are student behaviors exhibited as pupil withdrawal, recognition of the problems, its causes, and how both student and teacher can avoid the problem.

"Classroom Management" combines positive reinforcement, group alerting, learner accountability and withitness into one section. The subtopic, "Positive Reinforcement" emphasizes a variety of positive reinforcement techniques to help teachers adapt to varied classroom situations and routines. Another of the subtopics, "Group Alerting" involves teacher behaviors designed to keep students alert in the classroom, while increasing pupil work involvement and reducing deviant behavior in the classroom. The concept of "Learner Accountability" is based on the teacher's use of accountability strategies in the classroom; thus, reflecting a higher degree of student work involvement and fewer class disruptions. The subtopic "Transitions" is concerned with classroom management techniques exhibited by the teacher for the purpose of facilitating the smooth transition from one classroom activity to another. Last of the subtopics in this section is "Withitness", which refers to the teacher behavior demonstrated due to her knowledge of what is going on in the classroom. To further clarify, the teacher, through communication with her children, is aware of what the children are actually doing and at the same time increasing student work involvement and decreasing any disruptive student behavior.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Withdrawal Behavior" and "Classroom Management". "Classroom Management" contains four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may complete them either individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Withdrawal Behavior*

1. Read and study the definition of "Withdrawal".
2. Using your own words, complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Review aggressive behavior and then complete the Post-Viewing Activities in small groups.
5. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing exercises with the program facilitator.
6. Read, study and supply the information needed for the subtopics, "Think a Little More About the Causes of Withdrawal" by working in small groups.

7. Choose a class period where withdrawal of students sometimes occurs, then complete the subtopic, "Now Use the Concept For Yourself".
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Classroom Management*

A. Positive Reinforcement

1. The facilitator will give an oral presentation over the following materials: "Classroom Management Through Positive Reinforcements" *; "Teacher Attention As a Reinforcer"; "Activities and Priviledges as Reinforcers."

B. Group Alerting

1. Read and study "Group Alerting - Description of the Concept".
2. Follow the instructions given, and complete the transcript "Group Alerting".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Learner Accountability

1. Read and study "Learner Accountability - Description of the Concept".
2. From instructions given, supply the necessary information for the transcript, "Learner Accountability" by working in small groups.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

D. Transitions

1. Read and study "Transitions - Description of the Concept".
2. Roleplay or write out on the sheet provided a classroom situation which incorporates one of the three behavioral indicators of transition. Write it or roleplay it first in a negative manner, then in a positive manner.

E. Withitness

1. Read and study "Withitness - Description of the Concept".
2. Follow the instructions given, and complete the transcript, "Withitness" in small groups.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOR*

WITHDRAWAL: "...to turn away (as eyes) from an object of attention; to draw back or aside; to remove oneself from participation; to become socially or emotionally detached."(Webster's Dictionary)

No teacher wants to be the cause of pupil withdrawal. Most teachers want to motivate pupils, to excite them, to keep them involved. Yet, pupils do withdraw - frequently, and in larger numbers. What can a concerned teacher do? He can become more observant - more sensitive. He can learn to recognize the specific behaviors that signal pupil withdrawal. Then, he can look for the causes of that withdrawal. Where he is himself the cause - he can control. By learning to control his own behavior, the teacher can begin to reduce pupil withdrawal.

I. PRE-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

Think about the behaviors of pupils and teachers you have seen in the classroom. In your own words, write what you think pupil withdrawal means:

____

____

____

____

How do you know when a pupil or a teacher has withdrawn? Describe the way a person may act when he is withdrawing.

____

____

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____

____

____

II. NOW VIEW THE FILM: WITHDRAWAL

III. POST-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

Obviously, there are some visible behaviors which signal that withdrawal is occuring, e.g. lowering of eyes, lowering of voice.

Aggressive behavior signals frustration. Withdrawal also expresses frustration, anxiety. You have just seen apathy - indifference - inactivity - inattentiveness. These are often forms of withdrawal - means of coping with overwhelming problems.

Sometimes teacher behavior is the cause of pupil withdrawal. IF IT IS, we must be alert, sensitive and ready to change our own behavior in order to remediate the cause.

The following activities will help you develop greater skill in recognizing the symptoms of withdrawal. They will also help you refine your understanding of the causes of withdrawal behavior.

Can you improve your first definition of pupil withdrawal?

Make a new list of behaviors which indicate withdrawal.

IV. THINK A LITTLE MORE ABOUT THE CAUSES OF WITHDRAWAL...

Ernest Hilgard, in *Introduction to Psychology* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1953), p. 186, says:

When resistance is FUTILE...the frustrated person may become sullen and detached instead of angry and defiant. (WITHDRAWAL)...often indicates that aggression tendencies are being held in check or inhibited.

Withdrawal may be into a fantasy world, or into a state of detachment, non-participation.

Think of yourself. What do YOU do when you withdraw? What causes you to withdraw? Think of students. What do THEY do when they withdraw? What causes them to withdraw?

A	B
List some behaviors which you exhibit when you withdraw:	State some situations, problems, etc. that cause you to withdraw:

(The two lists need not coincide)

____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

List some behaviors which students exhibit when they withdraw:	State some situations, problems, etc. that cause students to withdraw:
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

V. NOW USE THE CONCEPT FOR YOURSELF!

Choose one of your own class periods in which you might expect to find some examples of withdrawal.

A. Either during or immediately after class fill out Columns A and B, i.e., write names of pupils and the observed withdrawal behaviors.

B. As soon as possible (you may not forget, but the pupil will;so minutes are important), fill out Columns C and D using the following procedures.

(1) Tell the pupil what you saw him do as you noted in Column B.
(2) Ask him what he was thinking about when he withdrew. Write that answer in Column C.
(3) Now ask the pupil, "Was I doing anything that made you..." (withdraw) Then write the answer in Column D.

REMEMBER: The pupil's answer will be reflective of his trust in your sincerity. If he believes that you are really trying to work on YOURSELF and not on him, he will help you. You will find that this activity will itself help you to establish better communication as well as better relationships with your pupils.

	OBSERVATION		INTERVIEW	
	A Names	B Observed Behaviors	C Withdrawal Thoughts	D Did teacher cause?
Pupil 1				
Pupil 2				
Pupil 3				

What could you do to help these pupils avoid the problems of withdrawal?

____

____

____

____

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

THROUGH

POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT *

Introduction

The past fifteen years has been a time of evaluation and change for the educational community. As a result of a growing dissatisfaction with the success rate of the educational process, educators and psychologists have developed a number of innovative educational techniques for the public schools. Many teachers have started to use these techniques in an effort to increase the motivation and achievement of their students.

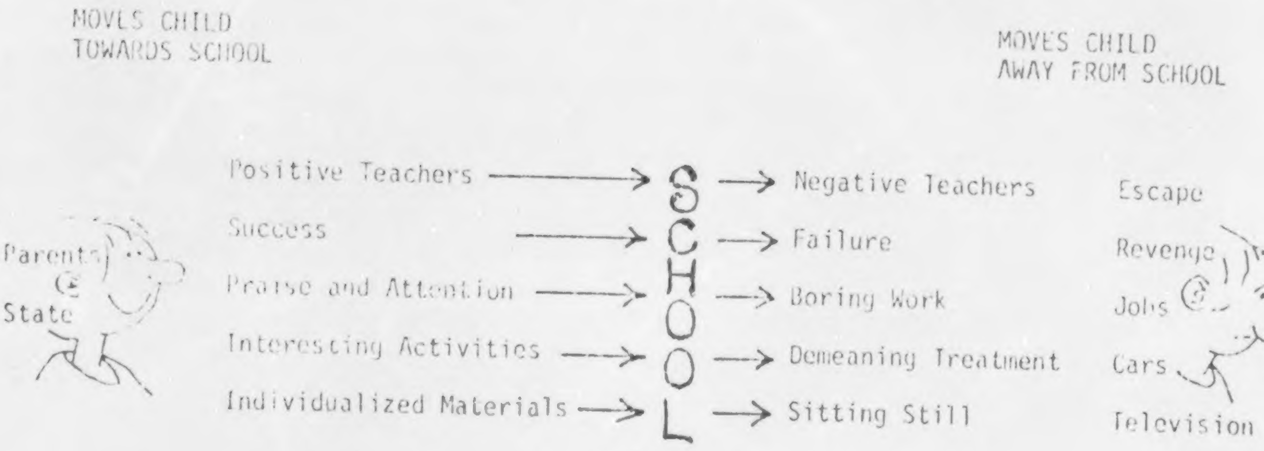
One learning technique that many teachers use to manage their classrooms effectively is positive reinforcement. This particular learning model emphasizes three skills: 1) the teacher assesses what is happening in the classroom in terms of observable behavior; 2) the teacher reinforces students by attending to and otherwise acknowledging student accomplishments; and 3) the teacher works to develop self-motivated, self-reinforced learners. Essentially, these skills deal with teacher responses to student behavior--responses which have a significant effect on classroom management problems. Reinforcement skills enable the teacher to become a positive force in the classroom which, in turn, leads to increased student motivation and achievement. Management problems decrease rapidly when students are interested and successful in learning.

The purpose of this module is to introduce teachers to a variety of positive reinforcement techniques. It is important to emphasize that these techniques can be used successfully in all kinds of classrooms with all kinds of students. Positive reinforcement can add to the success of many teaching styles such as open classrooms, non-graded subject areas, or team teaching. Positive reinforcement can also help a variety of students; average and below average students can become more motivated and more successful if they are reinforced for learning. All students need reinforcement. Therefore, teachers are advised to add these positive reinforcement skills to their teaching repertoire and adapt them to fit their students and their regular classroom routine.

What is Positive Reinforcement Theory?

This module is based on a psychological behavior theory which has evolved in the last fifteen years. This theory states that behavior is determined by its consequences. If a behavior is reinforced, it will increase in frequency. Reinforcement theory has been tested with students at all grade levels in a large number of classroom research studies. These research projects show that student behavior is the result of all the reinforcers (positive and negative) that are acting on a student. In effect, positive and negative reinforcement pushes and pulls a student toward school and away from school, as illustrated by this diagram:

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FORCES ACTING ON A STUDENT


MOVES CHILD TOWARDS SCHOOL
MOVES CHILD AWAY FROM SCHOOL
Positive Teachers
Success
Praise and Attention
Interesting Activities
Individualized Materials
SCHOOL
Negative Teachers
Failure
Boring Work
Demeaning Treatment
Sitting Still
Parents & State
Escape
Revenge
Jobs
Cars
Television

Obviously, it is desirable to move students toward school, to develop positive feelings in students about school, teachers and subject areas. Therefore, this module emphasizes a variety of positive reinforcement techniques to help teachers accomplish this objective: using praise, attention and interesting classroom activities to reinforce on-task student behavior; making sure that success is available to all students; adapting or developing individualized instructional materials; and developing a repertoire of positive verbal and non-verbal responses to student behavior.

This module does not recommend that teachers use negative reinforcement to motivate students, simply because negative techniques do not show long-range positive effects on student motivation and achievement. Additionally, criticism, failure, demeaning treatment, and punishment tend to push the student away from school. In this process, students often have negative feelings about school, teachers, their self-image. These negative feelings can result in students avoiding school altogether or trying to "get back" at schools through further misbehavior, vandalism, or just not doing any school work.

To understand the positive reinforcement system, it is necessary to know the meaning of two terms--behavior and reinforcement. These terms figured very importantly in the definition of reinforcement theory we stated early in this section: behavior is determined by its consequences; if a behavior is reinforced, it will increase in frequency.

What is Behavior?

A behavior is any observable response, incident, event or piece of action that can be seen and recorded. For instance, some typical student behaviors might be writing a story, whispering to a friend, completing a math problem or shooting a rubberband. Some typical teacher behaviors might be giving test directions, sitting with a student, complimenting a student on his work, or correcting math worksheets.

These behaviors are described in two very important ways: 1) they are specific actions, and 2) they are observable actions. This emphasis on specific behavior is essential to this module because reinforcement theory deals with the objective reinforcement of behavior. In order to reinforce behavior, it is necessary to define "behavior" in specific, observable terms. It is difficult to reinforce feelings, states of mind, or other concepts because they're too vague to identify in terms of behavior. It is easy to reinforce behavior that you can observe. Therefore, whenever the term "behavior" is used in this module, it can be defined as a specific, observable action.

What is Reinforcement?

A reinforcement is an event that increases the frequency of the behavior that it follows. For example, if you praise a student for working hard on a writing project, it is likely that he will work hard again, because praise is an effective reinforcement for most students. Likewise, if you compliment a student for cleaning up his work area, it is likely that his work area will remain neat, because teacher attention is reinforcing to most students. Praise and other kinds of teacher attention form just one group of reinforcement that is available in the classroom. Researchers who have studied the effects of positive reinforcement in a variety of school situations have found that teachers have an infinite number of effective reinforcers at their finger-tips: teacher attention, praise and proximity; various classroom activities and privileges; and extra surprises like food or toys. These reinforcers are frequently catalogued as a hierarchy of positive events

Level 1. Self-reinforcers. The learning task is self-reinforcing as the student works and as he achieves mastery of the task skills.

Level 2. Attention reinforcers. Praise and attention from teachers, recognition and approval from peers, grades.

Level 3. Activity and privilege reinforcers. Helping the teacher, free-time, any classroom activity or privilege the student enjoys.

Level 4. Tangible reinforcers. Candy, food, extra objects not normally contained in the classroom.

Every classroom contains students who are operating on these different levels of reinforcement. A few students may be completely self-motivated; they are reinforced by their own pleasure and success in solving a difficult problem, reading a story, or completing a series of tasks. These students seldom need outside reinforcement and usually are very effective learners. Most students, however, are working on the attention reinforcement level. These students are a little less self-motivated and occasionally need teacher or peer recognition to accomplish learning tasks. A few students in a typical classroom may be working at the next reinforcement level; they need an extra push as a motivation to start working. With these students, the teacher can make popular classroom activities and privileges contingent upon the students starting to work--completing some initial learning tasks. Most students do not need the powerful reinforcement of food or tangible objects to start working and learning. Therefore, it is advisable to use activity and privilege reinforcers to motivate hard-to-reach students whenever possible. It seems wise to avoid using tangible reinforcers because they are usually too expensive, too strong, and too easy to use haphazardly.

There are three important steps in using reinforcement to increase student motivation and achievement: 1) identifying at which level students are operating on the reinforcement hierarchy; 2) reinforcing students for learning, at their individual reinforcement levels; and 3) progressing students up the hierarchy, level by level, until they have developed self-reinforcing working habits. In other words, the initial purpose of using reinforcement is to motivate students to begin or to continue working. The final objective is to develop self-motivated learners and to phase the teacher out of the reinforcing role.

An interesting step in this process is identifying just where students are on the reinforcement hierarchy. The pragmatic approach seems best--start at the top level (self-reinforcement) and work down, trying different reinforcers until you find one that is successful in motivating the student to work and learn. Always use the minimum amount of the highest level of reinforcement. When the teacher uses as little reinforcement as possible, it is easier to progress the student up--towards self-reinforcement.

Another interesting step in using reinforcement is learning how to push the student up the hierarchy so that he becomes less and less dependent upon the teacher for reinforcement. Teachers can practice this skill by combining different reinforcement levels--always aiming for less outside reinforcement ~~and more~~ self-motivation in students. For example, a teacher can motivate a student with a special activity or privilege reinforcer. Whenever this reinforcer is used, it is coupled with teacher attention: "Sam, you did that typing problem so fast and so correctly that you can quit for today and run some errands for me. You've worked well and done a really great job!" To advance a student from praise and attention to self-reinforcement, the teacher must associate these two levels of reinforcement together, such as: "Mary, you've completed that assignment already. Fast work! Here, check it with the key, put the grade on it, and then mark it in my book that you've completed that assignment.

Summary

This module has concentrated on positive reinforcement theory, which states that behavior is determined by its consequences; if a behavior is reinforced, it will increase in frequency. Positive reinforcements like praise, attention, success, and interesting activities increase student motivation and give students a positive feeling about school, teachers, and themselves. Negative reinforcements like criticism, punishment, failure or demeaning treatment are not effective in achieving long-range motivation or achievement gains. Teachers can use various levels of positive reinforcement to motivate students. There are two key steps in using positive reinforcement effectively: 1) using the minimum amount of the highest level of reinforcement that will motivate the student; and 2) phasing out outside reinforcements in order to develop self-motivated learners.

TEACHER ATTENTION
AS A REINFORCER *

What is Teacher Attention?

A large portion of teacher time is spent in paying attention to on-task and off-task student behaviors in the classroom. This attention can be described as verbal or non-verbal.

VERBAL	NON-VERBAL
Right, correct answer!	Smile.
You finished that workbook assignment quickly, Sam!	Nod yes.
Good, you got two more problems right.	Wink.
	Move near student.

Verbal statements refer to specific activities or tasks the student is working on. This practice reinforces specific on-task behavior and is most effective in motivating the student to continue working or behaving in a certain way at a specified task. Vague statements such as "OK; You're doing well; You're behaving nicely; You've been good today," might make the student know exactly what he's doing right, nicely or well. If he isn't aware of exactly what he did to get the teacher's praise, he can't very well do it again for more. Therefore, it is advisable to make reinforcing statements refer to specific student behavior in this activity.

There is another facet of teacher attention that is more reinforcing than praise to most students. This kind of attention involves acknowledging the student as a real person. This can be accomplished by calling students by name, giving individual students some private teacher attention, using student information in discussions and in making class decisions. This personal sort of attention involves the teacher in looking at students individually, discovering what they like and don't like, giving them more sophisticated attention than praise for working and participating in class.

Therefore, teachers should try to use both praise and more personal kinds of attention to reinforce students.

Why Pay Less Attention to Off-Task Behavior?

Paying attention to off-task behavior is unwise because it has a number of undesirable consequences. Remember the theory that states "if a behavior is reinforced it will increase in frequency?" This theory applies to on-task and off-task behavior. Frowns, reprimands or corporal punishment actually reinforce off-task behavior and make it increase in frequency. This increase may occur immediately or at a later time, but it does occur. Therefore, the teacher who pays attention to students who are fooling around or being disruptive often accomplishes exactly the opposite of what is intended--these students continue to be off-task and occasionally devise even more original ways to obtain teacher and peer attention. Attention is precisely what these students are demanding, even when the attention is a frown, reprimand or threat.

Another undesirable side-effect of paying attention to students when they are off-task involves student self-concepts and feelings. Criticism and reprimands undermine positive self-concepts and encourage aggressive reactions in students. A student who is reminded of his mistakes more frequently than he is complimented on his successes is liable to begin to think he's a real loser. He may then expect to do poorly, expect to fail in new experiences, new subject areas. These negative feelings lead to general anger towards school. At this point, some students just "turn-off" teachers and evade school. Depending on the harshness and frequency of the negative attention they are receiving, other students strike back by encouraging classmates to be disruptive--destroying papers and books, vandalizing school property or getting teacher and peer attention by disrupting the class in other ingenious ways.

Should Teachers Try to Withhold Attention From All Off-Task Behaviors?

The teacher should pay as little attention as possible to off-task student behaviors. It is difficult to ignore disruptive behavior, but it is important for the teacher to develop the skill of paying less attention to nuisance behaviors like pestering, fiddling, doodling or whispering. It is also important for the teacher to develop the skill of paying less attention to distracting behaviors like talk-outs, humming and other strange noises. These ignoring skills are most effective when they are combined with the skill of paying attention to on-task behavior, because ignoring used alone is not effective in increasing on-task behavior.

The teacher who is interested in getting students on-task more often tries to ignore off-task behavior and tries to reinforce on-task behavior with attention--at the same time. In terms of what the teacher actually does, this combination of skills involves turning away from disruptive behavior and simultaneously reinforcing on-task behavior in another student. In this way the teacher also focuses the class's attention on a student who is working, instead of making the disruptive student the center of attention with a reprimand or threat. At the same time, it's also a good idea to watch for on-task behavior to reinforce in this disruptive student so that he can get some attention as soon as he responds positively.

Of course some off-task activities are difficult to ignore; some disruptive behaviors may be dangerous to the students involved, very distracting to other students, or damaging to school property. In emergency cases like this, the teacher may have to sacrifice paying attention to the disruptive behavior in order to rescue other students. But the teacher should be aware that stopping a fight, taking a dangerous object away from a student, or removing a disruptive student from the room does not solve the basic problem by itself. In fact, such actions probably make the overall situation worse, because the disruptive behavior in question has been reinforced, and it will occur again. In emergency cases, the teacher has to decide which is more important at the time--reinforcing the disruptive student or rescuing classmates.

If the teacher decides to pay attention to off-task behavior because it is dangerous or very distracting to other students, it is advisable to use the following techniques to minimize the undesirable consequences of paying attention to off-task behavior:

> Reprimand softly. Minimize peer-group attention by making your comments audible only to the disruptive student. Move to within three feet of the student before you say anything. Walk over at a normal pace and, if possible, continue talking to or looking at working students as you walk over to the disruptive student.
>
> Depersonalize reprimands. Only refer to activities that are happening at that time; eliminate evaluative comments concerning student ability or past behavior. For instance, "Your argument (conversation, physical activity, etc.) is disturbing me and distracting the rest of the class. I would like you (both of you) to stop (separate) now. We'll all have a chance to talk about this at ______ (a specific time)." This comment tells the student why he should stop whatever he's doing and schedule a later time to let off steam.

Emphasize "start" statement. Don't limit your comments to "stop" statements. Concentrate on telling the student what to start doing instead of misbehaving. For instance, the comment--"It would be good if you started your reading assignment now"--is a logical extension of the comments above because it encourages the student to begin a specified on-task behavior.

Equalizing Attention to the Whole Class

It is important for teachers to pay attention to all the students in the classroom. Teacher attention is such an important reinforcer that it should be shared by all students. All students should be reinforced each day by frequent smiles, nods and words of praise from their teacher. When teachers attend to the good things all students do by paying attention to them, students will be encouraged to act more positively.

Very often teachers get into attending habits. Certain students participate in class often. They answer questions, volunteer information and accomplish goals. These students receive lots of reinforcement because teachers like to see students listening, working, participating and succeeding in school. These successful students and their teachers get into the habit of reinforcing each other; the teacher smiles or praises when the student answers. The student wants more attention so he volunteers, participates in class more often. The teacher is happy to see the student's interest and reinforces him often. And so it goes--a circle of positive reinforcement.

Two kinds of students are often left out of the reinforcement circle--disruptive students and shy students. Disruptive students usually receive a lot of negative teacher attention, but teachers often miss the chance or forget to reinforce these students for their on-task, positive behaviors. Shy students rarely receive teacher attention, probably because they may be hesitant to volunteer or raise their hands with answers. Instead of interacting in the classroom, very shy students often disappear behind the hands and voices of the more verbal, more involved students. Teachers need to be aware that some disruptive, shy or withdrawn students are failing to get their share of positive teacher attention.

Ideally, all students would participate in class and be on-task a large percentage of the time. In this ideal situation, all students would share the teacher's attention equally. This ideal balance is difficult to approach when many of the teacher attention responses are part of an habitual pattern which does not encourage the quiet or less successful student to become more involved in class. However, many times the teacher developes an attention pattern that does not include all students. When this occurs, the teacher should make a conscious effort to find and pay attention to on-task behaviors in students who are being left out. This attempt at equalizing teacher attention will break the acquired pattern and divide teacher attention among all the students in the class. All the students will begin to be on-task more often so they can get more reinforcement. The circle of reinforcement will be enlarged to include more and more students.

ACTIVITIES AND PRIVILEGES AS REINFORCERS*

Activities and privileges are stronger reinforcers than teacher attention. This type reinforcer is used with the student who needs an extra push to try new learning behaviors.

Effectively practicing positive reinforcement to achieve classroom management requires the teacher to observe students as they work and interact in order to determine which students, if any, need reinforcers stronger than attention. At the same time, the teacher observes students to identify which activity or privilege reinforcers might be effective in motivating students to be on-task more often.

Observing the Class

To manage the classroom through positive reinforcement involves periodic classroom and individual observations. Observations give the teacher information about the nature and frequency of on-task and off-task behaviors; observations enable the teacher to determine where students are on the reinforcement hierarchy; and observations (and informal talks) give the teacher information about which activities and privileges are most effective in motivating individual students. One student may be motivated by a activity or privilege that may have no motivating effect at all on another student.

Observations of the frequency of certain off-task behaviors help the teacher evaluate just how interrupting or destracting the behaviors really are. Maybe observation will reveal that students aren't off-task as often as teachers think.

Observation also helps the teacher identify individual behavior patterns. The teacher might find that certain students have problems being on-task in only one activity. If building displays in D.E. is when Larry is off-task most, then the teacher can change teacher responses or individual assignments so that he will be encouraged to be on-task more often.

Can any of you think of activities or privileges that you use or can use for reinforcement? This type reinforcement has the advantage of being inexpensive and readily available. In addition, few students need reinforcers any stronger than this (i.e., most students are at the hierarchy level of privileges and activities or higher.

The *initial* purpose in using activities and privileges as reinforcers is to motivate students to try new learning behaviors. The *goal* of using such reinforcers is to give students more and more opportunities to initiate behavior on their own and to continue working as *self-motivated learners* who are reinforced by success. Activity reinforcers are just a means to reach the goal. Therefore, activity reinforcers should be phased out as soon as the student achieves some success in being on-task or makes some progress towards academic success.

Why Use Activities and Privileges as Reinforcers?

The *initial* purpose in using activities and privileges as reinforcers is to motivate students to try new learning behaviors. The *goal* of using such reinforcers is to give students more and more opportunities to initiate behavior on their own and to continue working as *self-motivated learners* who are reinforced by success. Activity reinforcers are just a means to reach

this goal. Keeping the goal of developing self-motivated learners in mind, teachers are advised to begin phasing out activity reinforcers as soon as the student achieves some success in being on-task or makes some progress towards academic success.

Using classroom activities and privileges as reinforcers is successful in motivating students to try new behaviors because it is a very flexible positive reinforcement technique. The teacher first discovers what is reinforcing to the student and then makes that activity or privilege contingent upon a certain quantity of social or academic achievement. The choice of the activity reinforcer is very flexible; students may enjoy being a teacher-assistant, stapling papers, running errands, etc. Whatever the individual reinforcer may be, the teacher learns to make this enjoyable activity available to the student only AFTER the appropriate learning behavior has occurred. In this way, according to reinforcement theory, the learning behavior is reinforced and will occur again.

Certain basic decisions have to be made before you can use activity or privilege reinforcers effectively.

1. Identify Work Requirements. You identify the behavior or area in which the student needs to increase production or to increase on-task social behaviors. For example, you may want the student to complete more problems, worksheets, etc. In addition, you have to be sure that the student can succeed at the task identified because successful completion leads to achievement of the reinforcer, which increases student motivation. Therefore, it may be necessary to make special worksheets, say, for this student.

2. Choose a Reinforcer. The teacher must decide which privilege or activity will best act as a reinforcer for each individual student. Always make sure, however, that the student receives his activity reinforcer after he has completed the work requirement. For instance, a student gets to go to lunch early only after he completes additional problems or worksheets in the morning.

GROUP ALERTING

Description of the Concept*

Introduction:

The principle underlying GROUP ALERTING may be stated: TEACHER BEHAVIORS DESIGNED TO KEEP STUDENTS ALERT WILL INCREASE ON-TASK BEHAVIOR AND REDUCE DEVIANT BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM. In Kounin's[6] study of teacher style in 49 elementary classrooms, he found a correlation between teacher GROUP ALERTING skills and pupil work involvement of .603. GROUP ALERTING, however, also tends to reduce the amount of deviant behavior during recitation lessons. This is probably due to the fact that many children engage in deviant behavior because they are not closely involved in the lesson. Kounin found that teacher GROUP ALERTING skills correlated .442 with freedom from deviant behavior on the part of pupils during recitation lessons.

At the present time, the concept GROUP ALERTING has little meaning for you. Consequently, you have no way of utilizing this in your teaching behavior. Therefore, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In short, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply GROUP ALERTING in your teaching. In this module, you will be introduced to three behavioral indicators of GROUP ALERTING. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to apply GROUP ALERTING to teaching. These three have been chosen for emphasis because use of positive GROUP ALERTING and avoidance of negative GROUP ALERTING can increase pupil work involvement and reduce off-task behavior in your classroom.

Learner Objectives:

At the completion of this module, you should understand and be able to apply the concept of Group Alerting. You will be asked to identify examples of the three positive and negative behavioral indicators of Group Alerting when given a transcript of a classroom discussion.

The Behavioral Indicators:

Kounin identified several positive and negative group alerting behaviors that teachers commonly use in the classroom. A positive group alerting behavior is one that tends to keep children alert while a negative behavior tends to reduce the involvement of non-reciters in a recitation session. From the behaviors identified by Kounin, we have selected three behavioral indicators for you to focus on in this module. These behaviors can be either positive or negative, depending upon how the teacher uses them. A brief definition of the three behaviors are:

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[6] Kounin, Jacob S. Discipline and group management in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1970.

1. Questioning Technique -- The teacher frames a question and pauses before calling on a reciter (QT+), rather than naming the reciter and then giving the question (QT-).

2. Recitation Strategy -- The teacher calls on reciters at random (RS+) rather than calling on them in a predetermined sequence (RS-).

3. Alerting Cues -- The teacher alerts nonperformers that they may be called on (AC).

Questioning Technique

When a teacher frames a question and pauses before calling on a reciter, several desirable outcomes occur. Most important, perhaps, is that since pupils do not know who will be called on, all of them are motivated to think of an answer to the question. The pause is also an important part of this strategy since it gives children time to think of an answer. Teachers who ask rapid fire questions and give children no time to think can expect little more than memorized answers. One of the most difficult things for teachers to learn is the art of pausing for a few seconds before calling on a child. Many teachers regard this as time wasted. However, if this time is being used by all of the students in your recitation group to think of a satisfactory answer, then the time is being well spent.

When a teacher first names a reciter and then asks the question, the teacher in effect is announcing to all of the other children in the recitation group that they will not be called on. This in turn means that other children in the group will not think of an answer to the question and in many cases will become inattentive or will engage in deviant behavior. Therefore, teachers who use the positive questioning technique of framing the question, pausing, and then calling on a reciter (QT+) will obtain higher levels of pupil attention and work involvement and will experience fewer incidents of deviant pupil behavior than teachers who use a negative questioning sequence which involves naming the reciter and then giving the question (QT-).

Recitation Strategy

When the teacher employs a positive recitation strategy in which reciters are called upon at random rather than in a predetermined sequence (RS+), the result, again, is that children must attend carefully to the lesson since each child feels he may be the next person called on. On the other hand, teachers who use a negative recitation strategy (RS-) such as calling on children in a predetermined sequence will find children less attentive and more likely to engage in deviant behavior. After all, if the teacher calls on children in a predetermined sequence, the child whose turn will not come for several minutes has little reason to attend to the classroom activity. Of course, it is desirable to make lessons sufficiently interesting so that the child will be motivated to attend. However, even with interesting lessons, the level of attention will be much better if children cannot predict who will be called on next.

There are other negative recitation strategies that tend to reduce pupil attention. For example, if the teacher calls only on children who raise their hands or volunteer an answer, then the child who does not wish to recite knows that he can avoid reciting merely by never raising his hand. The result of this negative strategy is that the teacher rarely calls on the children who are most likely to need the recitation experience. Another negative recitation strategy used by many teachers is to call on the same few pupils most of the time. These are usually the brighter and more eager pupils in the classroom. It is far better to call on all children during a recitation lesson so that over a period of a week each child will have been called on about the same number of times. Some teachers who have gotten into the habit of calling on a few pupils can break this habit by keeping a class roster at hand during a recitation lesson and tallying the number of times each child is called on. It is then an easy matter for the teacher to call on children who have fewer tally marks and, therefore, gradually balance the recitation of different children in the class.

In this module, we will emphasize the positive recitation strategy of calling on reciters at random (RS+) as opposed to the negative strategy of calling on pupils in a predetermined sequence (RS-). Although we will not emphasize the other negative strategies mentioned, such as calling on volunteers only, avoiding these strategies is important and should be kept in mind by the teacher.

Alerting Cue

Alerting Cues (AC) are used by the teacher to remind children in the recitation group that all are likely to be called on. The use of alerting cues is particularly important if the teacher has previously used negative recitation strategies or negative questioning sequence. Many times alerting cues are used to make students aware of the ground rules the teacher will use in the recitation. For example, the teacher may say, "During this recitation, I will first ask a question, then I will pause for a few seconds and then I will call for one of you to give me an answer. Since, you have no way of knowing who I will call on, each of you should use the time when I pause to think of a good answer to the question." If the teacher notices that a few children are not listening, an alerting cue will remind them that everyone should be listening and thinking of answers in case he is called on next. For example, the teacher might say, "Remember, no one knows who will be called on next, so each of you should listen carefully and be ready with a good answer in case I call on you."

Once the teacher has used positive questioning sequence and recitation strategy over a period of time and has avoided negative group alerting behavior, children will require relatively few alerting cues. However, alerting cues are especially important when the teacher is changing from negative group alerting behaviors to positive behaviors. Also, alerting cues should be used whenever a teacher feels that some children are not attending carefully to the recitation. Such reminders are often sufficient to increase the work involvement and reduce deviant behavior.

All three of the positive group alerting techniques , which we have described above, are very simple behaviors for the teacher to employ. Yet, these behaviors can bring about very important changes in the atmosphere of your discussion and recitation lessons. If you use positive group alerting behaviors, children will listen more carefully, are more likely to give a good answer when called on, and will generally display a higher level of work involvement. A second advantage of using positive group alerting techniques is that as the work involvement of the group goes up, and the frequency of deviant behavior such as disrupting the class and discipline problems, goes down.

Summary

1. Positive Questioning Technique (QT+) involves framing the question before calling on a child to answer. It is desirable to pause after framing the question in order to give children time to think of an answer.

2. Positive Recitation Strategy (RS+) involves calling on pupils at random so that all children will have to prepare an answer.

3. Alerting Cues (AC) involve alerting children that they should pay attention and think of an answer to every question since they might be called on next.

GROUP ALERTING

TRANSCRIPT *

Instructions:

There are several teacher behaviors which can be employed to keep children alert during classroom interaction. Three such behaviors are:

1. Questioning Technique--The teacher frames a question and pauses before calling on a reciter (QT+), rather than naming the reciter and then giving the question (QT-).

2. Recitation Strategy--The teacher calls on reciters at random (RS+) rather than calling on them in a predetermined sequence (RS-).

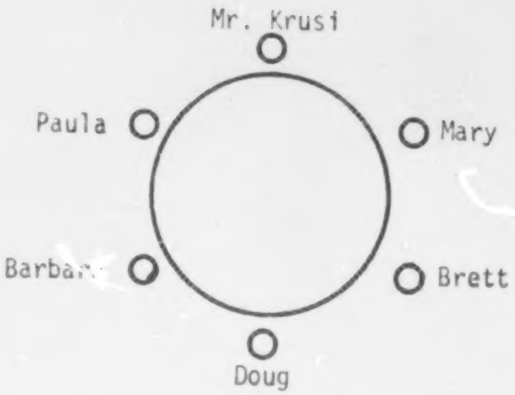
3. Alerting Cues--The teacher alerts nonperformers that they may be called on (AC).

The following is a transcript from a classroom situation. Throughout the transcript, you will find teacher remarks are underlined. Read each remark and decide whether it is an example or a violation of one of the three behaviors listed above. To the left of each underlined statement, write the appropriate symbol as follows:

AC --for Alerting Cue
QT+ --for correct Questioning Technique (if teacher violates this procedure, use QT-)
RS+ --for Recitation Strategy (if teacher violates this procedure, use RS-)
NA --None of the Above

GROUP ALERTING

Seating Arrangement: STUDY FIRST



Part I:

T: In our science lesson, we read about a boy finding a strange bone. The boy thought the bone might be

I. ____ from an extinct animal. How could anyone tell what kind of animal a single bone came from? Mary?

Mary: If you compared it with similar bones from the same animal.

T: That's a good idea, Mary. Brett?

Brett: I found some bones and I could tell which ones are ribs and back bones, but I couldn't tell what animal the bones came from.

T: Then you've had some personal experience with old bones, haven't you, Brett? Could it have been some bones to a horse?

Brett: No. They're too little to be from a horse.

2. _____ T: Okay. Doug, has Brett given us any important information from his experience?

Doug: Yeah, I hadn't thought about that before, but if the bones were small then they would come from a small animal. So you couldn't get a mouse's bones mixed up with a cow's bones.

T: Right, Doug. Now, perhaps we could answer some
3. _____ harder questions. Everyone think about this carefully so you can give a good answer if called on.
How would a scientist be able to recognize the bone from an animal such as a dinosaur that no man has every seen? Barbara?

Barbara: That's not hard because the bone would be bigger than any other type of bone that they knew about so it would have to be from a big animal.

4. _____ T: Good answer. Paula?

Paula: And if they found a few bones, they could piece them together and get an idea of the size and shape of the animal.

T: Okay, you've done a good job of thinking. Now suppose you found only one bone or a few bones, would you be able to tell anything about it?
5. _____ Think this over for a moment while I decide who
to call on. Consider some of the things we

T: already know. Mary?

Mary: If you found a tooth or part of a jaw you may be able to tell what kind of food it ate.

6. ____ Instructions: Decide what recitation strategy has been used in Part 1 of this transcript. Write your answer in the blank on the left.

Part II:

T: Okay, fine. Doug?

Doug: If you found a leg bone, you may be able to tell if it runs fast by measuring it or by its shape.

T: Brett?

Brett: I think the more you know about animals today, the more you would know about animals in the past. So you may know something about an animal even though you may never have seen them.

T: Okay, Brett, that's a very fine point. You've told us one way scientists continue to search for facts. Okay, class. You've done very well.

7. ____ Now we're getting into more difficult material so think very carefully about each question I ask. Okay, students, here is the first question.

8. ____ Assuming that a scientist can tell you what kind of animal a bone came from, how could they possibly tell how old it was? Paula?

Paula: I read something about that but I can't remember.

9. ____ T: Mary, can you help us?

Mary: If the bones were fossils, you would know that they were old.

T: Okay, very good. It takes a while for a bone to become a fossil. Barbara?

Barbara: Knowing what kind of rocks they were found in might help you.

T: Okay, Brett?

Brett: I remember now. A geologist might be able to help you because they know quite a bit about different layers of the earth.

10. _____ T: Very good. Paula, what can you tell us about fossils?

Paula: I've read about a place in the desert where you can get fossils of fish. Because the fossils are in sedimentary rocks, they have been able to tell the age of the fossils.

T: Okay, Paula has brought up an interesting point.

11. _____ How can fossil fish be found in the desert? While I pause to call on someone, each one of you should think about this carefully. Use the information we have learned by reading the chapter. As you know, you don't normally find fish in the desert. Doug?

Doug: Our book said that there was once water there and maybe the climate changed or the earth changed making it become a desert.

T: Fine. Brett?

Brett: Maybe the earth was pushed up forming a mountain, or an earthquake could have changed the shape of the land.

T: Very good. You've all done a very fine job on this unit.

12. ____

Instructions: Decide what recitation strategy has been used in Part II of this transcript. Write your answer in the blank on the left.

LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY *

Description of the Concept

Introduction:

The concept of LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY is based on the following principle: WHEN THE TEACHER USES SPECIFIC STRATEGIES TO HOLD THE STUDENT ACCOUNTABLE FOR HIS WORK DURING THE CLASS, THESE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES WILL INCREASE THE STUDENTS' WORK INVOLVEMENT AND REDUCE THE FREQUENCY OF DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOR. Kounin[7] found significant relationships between the teacher's use of accountability strategies and amount of work involvement shown by students. He also found a significant relationship between teacher use of accountability and freedom from deviant student behavior in the classroom. Therefore, the teacher who uses accountability strategies is likely to have a higher degree of student work involvement and to have fewer class disruptions and discipline problems. Accountability strategies consist of a variety of techniques the teacher can use to keep informed about student progress. An essential element in all of the accountability strategies is that the teacher must show clear and unmistakable signs of listening and checking. Going through the motions of the accountability techniques is not enough, unless the teacher clearly attends to the resultant pupil remarks or behaviors. For example, if the teacher asks children to hold up their work so that she may check it, she should obviously look at the work being held up, praise work that is particularly good, and ask questions if the pupil has the wrong answer or has failed to follow instructions on the work he is showing.

At the present time, the concept LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY has little meaning for you. Consequently, you have no way of utilizing this in your teaching behavior. Therefore, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In short, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY in your teaching. In this module, you will be introduced to three behavioral indicators of LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to apply LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY to teaching. These three have been chosen for emphasis because (1) they can be used in a wide range of teaching situations, (2) they bring about substantial improvement in student work involvement and behavior, and (3) they are simple enough for you to master without practice in a regular classroom.

Learner Objectives

At the completion of this module, you should understand and be able to apply the concept of Learner Accountability. You will be asked to identify examples of the 3 behavioral indicators of the concept Learning Accountability when given a transcript of a classroom discussion.

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[7] Kounin, J.S. Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Behavioral Indicators:

To achieve an understanding of the concept of Learner Accountability, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following three behavioral indicators.

1. Goal Directed Prompts -- Teacher asks questions which focus on the student's goal by asking him about his work plans or work progress.

2. Work Showing -- Teacher holds students accountable for their work by having them show work or demonstrate skills or knowledge.

3. Peer Involvement -- Teacher involves students in the work of their peers by having them respond to another student's recitation or work activity.

Goal Directed Prompts

Goal directed prompts are teacher questions or statements aimed at focusing the pupil on the steps involved in reaching his goal. Such questions usually deal with either work plans or work progress. Work plans prompts are aimed at getting the student to think through parts of the work process or work strategy he will follow, and include teacher questions, such as: "What is the first thing you should do on your project book?" or "What should you do next on this assignment?" or "How would you start on this new activity?" Other goal directed prompts are aimed at learning the students' progress on a work activity. Examples of work progress prompts are: "John, how far have you gotten on your notebook?" or "How did you get along yesterday in your library search?" or "How are you progressing on your science report?' or "What is the first thing you should do after I hand back the test papers?" or "Are you going to be able to finish in time for your report next week?"

You should employ Goal Directed Prompts to convey ideas such as the following to your students:

1. You, as the teacher, are interested in the student's work and want to keep informed about his progress.

2. He should plan his work so that each step will be clear as he progresses.

3. Since you, the teacher, frequently ask about his progress on his work, it must be important. If he is to have any progress to report, he must keep working towards his goal.

4. You, the teacher, want the student to do well. When he encounters problems, you are ready to help him.

In summary, you are interested in his progress, want him to do well and are ready to help if he in turn will do as well as he can.

In some cases, it is difficult to differentiate between Work Showing and Goal Directed Prompts since both may occur in the same teacher action. In completing your Recognition Practice Lesson, label as "work showing" any teacher action in which the learner actually displays his work, demonstrates a skill, or gives answers (such as choral response) in which he demonstrates his knowledge or understanding of the material he is studying.

In contrast, Goal Directed Prompts require the student to tell about his work rather than show his work or demonstrate what he has learned. Work showing deals with curriculum content while Goal Directed Prompts are concerned with the work or learning process.

Work Showing

This includes a number of strategies that the teacher can use with both groups and individuals to learn how well students are progressing in their work activity. These include:

1. Students holding up their work for the teacher to check.
2. Students reciting in unison to teacher question.
3. Visual checking -- The teacher circulates and checks the work of nonreciters while a given child is reciting.
4. The teacher requires a child to demonstrate and checks his performance.
5. Using check points -- The teacher sets up certain check points in order to systematically check the progress of the class. For example, the teacher might say, "When you've finished step one, bring it up to me and I will make sure it is correct before you go on."

Peer Involvement Strategies

1. Individual -- The teacher brings other pupils into a recitation with cues such as, "Bill, you and Jim work the problem together and be ready to help each other out," or "Mary, listen to John's answer and be ready to add to what he says."
2. Group -- These are strategies which require the group to become involved in the performance of an individual child. For example, after an individual response, the teacher can say, "How many of you agree with John's answer?" or "I see some of you agree and some of you don't agree with what Mary says. What do you think of Mary's answer, Jim?" A game can also be used to obtain group peer involvement. For example, the teacher can set up two teams. The teacher asks a question to a member of Team 1 and then calls on three members of Team 2 at random to see if each can add something to the Team 1 answer. Then, the teacher asks a new question of Team 2 and calls on three members of Team 1 to see if they can add to the Team 2 answer and so on. Points could be given for the initial answer as well as the additions made to the answer by the other team.

LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY*

TRANSCRIPT

Instructions:

There are several teacher behaviors which can be employed to hold a student accountable for his work during class thereby increasing the students' work involvement and reducing the frequency of off-task behavior. Three of these behaviors are:

1. Goal Directed Prompts -- Teacher asks questions which focus on the student's goal by asking him about his work plans or work progress.
2. Work Showing -- Teacher holds students accountable for their work by having them show work or demonstrate skills or knowledge.
3. Peer Involvement -- Teacher involves students in the work of their peers by having them respond to another student's recitation or work activity.

The following is a transcript taken from a classroom situation. Throughout the transcript you will find that teacher remarks are underlined. Read each remark and decide whether or not it is an example of one of the three teacher behaviors of Learner Accountability. To the left of each underlined statement, write the appropriate symbol as follows:

GDP -- Goal Directed Prompts
WS -- Work Showing
PI -- Peer Involvement
NA -- None of the above

T: Today, I'm going to divide you into two teams
for a math activity. Each team will take a turn
stating a math story for the other team to solve.
A maximum of four points a problem will be awarded.
Two points for setting up the problem and correct
mathematical notation the first time, one point
if you get it the second time. Two points for
correct answer to the problem the first try and
one point on the second try. The captain of the
team asking the question will be able to choose
any member of the opposite team to set up and
solve the problem on the board. Therefore, there
will be a one minute time period in which each
member of that team may work out the problem on
a piece of paper. I will hand each captain a set
of questions from which he may choose one to ask
when it's his team's turn. Are there any questions
before we begin? Since none of you raised your
1. _____ hands, but are looking a little puzzled, I'd like
to review. What does your team do when asked a
question? Kent?

Kent: They try to get the answer.

2. _____ T: Do you agree with Kent, Claire?

Claire: In a way, but he should have said that all members of the team work the problem because no one knows who the captain will call on.

3. ____ T: Who can add something to Claire's statement? Mike?
Mike: Everyone in the team must be responsible for their
team to win.
4. ____ T: That's right, Mike. Now, before you start working
for points, let's have a trial problem. I'll be
the captain and you be the team. Work out the
problem on paper and then I'll call on one of you
5. ____ to do the problem on the board: Will all of you hold up
the pad of paper my helper has given you, so I can
be sure that each of you is ready to go to work.
Mike, you don't have any paper, come up to the
desk and I'll give you a pad. (pause) Okay, here is the
problem. Sue had 57 stamps. She pasted seven
stamps in a row. How many rows of seven could she
6. ____ make? You have one minute. (pause) What are you going
to do first, Sally?
Sally: First, I would write the problem down on paper,
but I'm not sure how to do this one.
T: Try to work it several ways and see if you can get
7. ____ the answer. Theresa, how far are you?
Theresa: I'm finished.
8. ____ T: Good, Theresa. Even though a minute isn't up, I'd
like to check your progress. Raise your hand to show
how many of you are finished. (Several students raise
hands.) Good, some of you are finished. The rest of you
9. ____ still have a little time. (pause) Time! Kent, will
you come up and put your problem on the board.
(Kent goes to the board and writes down the problem

T: and answer.) The rest of you watch and check your work with his. Okay, will you explain how you got that answer?

Kent: There are 57 stamps with seven in a row. Seven divided into 57 would go 8 times with a remainder of 1.

10. ____ T: Do you all agree with Kent? Some of you are

11. ____ shaking your heads. Mike, is something the matter with this solution?

Mike: Kent forgot to write remainder of 1 up with the rest of the answer. He only wrote it down where he subtracted it.

12. ____ T: That is right, Mike. Remainders must be shown as part of the answer. So I would give three points for that answer -- two because the problem was written correctly, and one because the correct answer was given the second time.

Let's begin to play now. Claire, you will be the captain of Team A. Start by reading one of the problems for Team B to work.

Claire: Well, there are six tomatoes in each bag, and there are 35 bags. How many tomatoes are there? (pause)

T: (Teacher walks among students, observing.)

13. ____ Harlan, let me see your work. O.K. Kim? Good. Theresa, your work looks real good so far. Keep it covered, though, so no one can see it. Good Claire.

14. _____T: Time is up! Captain, you may call on someone to answer this question.

Captain: Sally.

15. _____T: Sally, come up to the board then and show us how you worked the problem. The rest of you watch again to compare your work.

(pause)

Sally, explain your answer, please.

Sally: I multiplied 35 by 6 to get a total of 210 tomatoes.

16. _____T: Two hundred ten tomatoes? Okay, how many of you agree with Sally's answer? Good, because Sally's answer is correct. So, your team would get a total of four points. Two points because the problem was written right and two because the answer

17. _____T: was right the first time. Now, it's the other team's turn.

TRANSITIONS *

Description of the Concept

Introduction:

This module is concerned with the concept of TRANSITIONS. The principle underlying TRANSITIONS may be stated as follows: Classroom MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES USED BY THE TEACHER EITHER FACILITATE OR INTERFERE WITH THE SMOOTH TRANSITION FROM ONE CLASSROOM ACTIVITY TO ANOTHER.

Presently, the concept TRANSITIONS has little meaning for you. Consequently, you have no way of utilizing this in your teaching behavior. Before you can begin to employ TRANSITIONS in your classroom teaching behavior, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In short, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply TRANSITIONS in your teaching. In this module, you will be introduced to three behavioral indicators of TRANSITIONS. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can use in the classroom to apply TRANSITIONS to teaching. These three have been chosen for emphasis because use of positive TRANSITIONS and avoidance of negative TRANSITIONS can increase pupil work involvement and reduce disruptive behavior in your classroom.

Learner Objectives:

At the completion of this module, you should understand and be able to apply the concept of Transitions. You will be asked to display your knowledge of the concept by presenting to the class a classroom situation which incorporates the three behavioral indicators (negative and positive) of Transitions.

Behavioral Indicators:

In this lesson, we will deal with three specific behavioral indicators related to effective transitions in the classroom. Each of these behaviors has a positive and negative element. That is, the teacher can behave in one way which interferes with the classroom activities and leads to poor transitions or can deal with the same problem in another way which does not interfere with the classroom activities and leads to smooth transitions between different topics.

To achieve an understanding of the concept, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following 3 behavioral indicators:

1. Stimulus Boundedness -- The teacher is deflected from the main activity and reacts to some external stimulus that is unrelated to the on-going activity, versus Delayed Response -- the teacher delays responding to an unrelated stimulus until a natural break occurs in the classroom activity.

2. Thrust -- The teacher bursts in suddenly on the children's activities in such a manner as to indicate that her own intent of thought was the only determinant of her timing and point of entry, versus Timely Interjection -- The teacher introduces information in a manner which minimizes interruption to the student's activity.

3. Flip-Flop -- The teacher starts a new activity without bringing the original activity to a close and then returns to the original activity, versus Smooth Transition -- The teacher fully completes one activity before moving on to the next.

Stimulus-Boundedness (SB-)

Stimulus-boundedness tends to interrupt the classroom activities. In stimulus-boundedness, an ongoing teacher activity is interrupted by an external stimulus. The teacher immediately responds to the external stimulus, therefore, interrupting the ongoing activity. We will call the positive behavior that is opposed to stimulus-boundedness delayed response (SB+). In this case, when an external stimulus is introduced into the classroom, the teacher continues with her activity and delays responding to the stimulus until a natural break occurs in the classroom activity. In effect, the teacher refuses to be sidetracked by an external stimulus that will result in stopping the normal classroom activities at a point where these activities should be continued.

Thrust (T-)

In a thrust, the teacher suddenly interrupts the children's activities such as seatwork, at an inappropriate time. In the case of the thrust, the teacher is not responding to an external stimulus. Instead, the teacher thinks of some statement or question that should be raised and suddenly bursts in on the classroom activity rather than waiting for a time when her comment will not interrupt children who are involved in the activity. Thrusts frequently involve the teacher giving additional instructions or raising additional points that should have been raised prior to the start of the students' activity. We will call the positive opposite of a thrust a timely interjection (T+). Ideally, the teacher should provide all necessary information before students start a seatwork activity. However, when the teacher forgets to do this, the information should be introduced in a manner that does not suddenly break in on the children's activity, and should be introduced at a point in the activity where the interruption will have minimum effect on the activity.

Flip-Flops (FF-)

A flip-flop occurs when a teacher starts a new topic and having gotten into the new topic returns to make some comment or give additional instruction about the topic just concluded. The flip-flop occurs only near transition points when one topic is being concluded and a new topic is being introduced. We will call the opposite behavior smooth transition (FF+). A smooth transition is one where the teacher fully completes the initial topic before moving on to a new topic.

What are the essential differences among stimulus-boundedness, thrusts, and flip-flops? Stimulus-boundedness can be differentiated from the other behavior indicators because it invariably involves the teacher responding to an external stimulus. In contrast, thrusts and flip-flops usually occur because of an internal stimulus. That is, the teacher thinks of something that should have been included and responds to this thought. Thrusts can be differentiated from flip-flops in that a thrust involves the teacher suddenly bursting in on a topic that is already underway. While a thrust may occur at transition points, it always involves a clear element of suddenness. Flip-flops always occur at transition points and basically involve the teacher oscillating between the old topic that is being concluded and the new topic that is being introduced.

TRANSITIONS

Role Playing

Divide into three groups. Each group select one of the three behavioral indicators of transitions: Stimulus-Boundedness, Thrust, or Flip-Flop. Your task is to present a classroom situation to the other groups incorporating your behavioral indicator of transitions in first a negative and then a positive manner.

WITHITNESS*

Description of the Concept

Introduction:

The term WITHITNESS was coined by Kounin[9] to refer to the teacher's behavior that demonstrates that she knows what is going on in the classroom. More precisely, Kounin defines WITHITNESS as " . . . a teacher communicating to the children by her actual behavior that she knows what the children are doing . . ." In his research, however, Kounin's operational definition of WITHITNESS was much more limited. Although Kounin admits that other events could be used to measure WITHITNESS, he limited his measurement to desist events that the teacher employed in the classroom. A desist is some action that a teacher takes to stop a child's misbehavior. Kounin failed to find any relationship between style of desist used by the teacher and the success of the teacher in stopping deviant child behavior. The important factors in teacher desists appear to be (1) whether the desist is directed at the correct target, i.e., the child who initiated the deviant behavior and (2) whether the desist was timely, i.e., applied before the deviant behavior spreads to other children or increases in seriousness. A teacher's WITHITNESS score was obtained by dividing the total number of her desists by the number of mistake-free desists, i.e., those directed to the correct target before the deviant behavior had spread or become more serious. In Kounin's study, he found a correlation of .615 between teacher WITHITNESS and pupil's work involvement and .531 between WITHITNESS and pupil deviant behavior. These relationships are high enough to indicate that teacher WITHITNESS is an important factor in keeping children on task and reducing misbehavior in the classroom.

The principle underlying WITHITNESS is: TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH DEMONSTRATE THAT A TEACHER KNOWS WHAT IS GOING ON IN THE CLASSROOM TEND TO INCREASE STUDENT WORK INVOLVEMENT AND DECREASE DEVIANT OR DISRUPTIVE STUDENT BEHAVIOR.

At the present time, the concept WITHITNESS has little meaning for you. Consequently, you have no way of utilizing this in your teaching behavior. Therefore, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In short, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply WITHITNESS in your teaching. In this module, you will be introduced to four behavioral indicators of WITHITNESS. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to apply WITHITNESS to teaching. These four behaviors have been chosen for emphasis because they are specific and clear-cut and can readily be applied in the classroom.

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[9] Kounin, Jacob S. Discipline and group management in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1970.

Learner Objectives:

At the completion of this module, you should understand and be able to apply the concept of Withitness. You will be asked to identify examples of the four behavioral indicators of Withitness when given a copy of teacher statements dealing with deviant behavior.

Definitions:

Withitness has been broadly defined as any behavior which the teacher can employ to reduce the frequency of deviant or off-task pupil behavior. We have identified four behavioral indicators of Withitness that will be emphasized in this module. These behavioral indicators are: Desist, Suggest Alternative Behavior, Concurrent Praise and Description of Desirable Behavior.

Behavioral Indicators:

To achieve an understanding of the concept of Withitness, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following four behavioral indicators:

(1) Desist--The teacher demonstrates Withitness by telling students to stop the deviant or off-task behavior. In order to be effective the desist must be directed at the student who initiated the deviant behavior and must be administered before the deviant behavior spreads or becomes more serious. It must be timely and on target (D+). If the desist is not timely or on target, it is a negative desist referred to as (D-).

(2) Suggest Alternative Behavior--When deviant behavior occurs, the teacher diverts the disruptive or off-task student by suggesting that he engage in an alternative behavior.

(3) Concurrent Praise--The teacher avoids direct confrontation with a student who is displaying deviant or off-task behavior by concurrently praising the non-deviant or on-task behavior of other students.

(4) Description of Desirable Behavior--The teacher describes or has the off-task student describe the desirable behavior which the student usually exhibits or should exhibit in place of the on-going deviant or off-task behavior.

Desist

In simple terms, a desist involves the teacher telling the student to stop disruptive or off-task behavior. Usually the desist consists of little except the teacher telling the pupil to stop doing whatever the deviant behavior is although desists differ in such variables as firmness, clarity and punitiveness. Under extreme conditions involving physical aggression where a child might be injured by the deviant behavior, the teacher may use physical constraint in addition to a verbal desist. As a rule, the teacher should not use desist techniques if one of the other Withitness behaviors such as concurrent praise is likely to be effective. There are three main occasions when desist behaviors should be employed. These are:

(1) *When the pupil's deviant behavior is seriously disrupting the activities of the class*. Since the teacher's use of a desist usually interrupts the class activities, it is not wise to use desist behavior to stop deviant or off-task pupil behavior which is not creating a serious disturbance. In these cases, the teacher's verbal desist is likely to be more disturbing to the class than the deviant behavior itself. If you have studied the USU protocol module on Transitions, you will recognize that desist behaviors often constitute Thrusts or Stimulus Boundedness on the part of the teacher unless the desist can be carried out in a manner which does not disturb the rest of the class.

(2) *Desists should be used promptly in cases of deviant behavior that involve physical aggression on the part of the child*. For example, if one child is poking another with a pencil, the teacher should immediately use a desist to stop this behavior since it could result in the injury of a child. In situations of this sort where injury is possible, the teacher may physically constrain the child in addition to using a verbal desist.

(3) *Desists should also be used with children who have consistently failed to respond to other strategies such as concurrent praise or suggesting alternate behavior*. However, children who consistently fail to respond to alternative strategies should be counseled by the teacher since the desist is essentially a form of negative control.

Another reason for avoiding the use of desists when other strategies are likely to work is that many children use deviant behavior as a device for gaining teacher attention. The desist, of course, gives the child the attention he is seeking while a behavior such as concurrent praise does not. In his study of desist behavior, Kounin related the degree of success of the desist in stopping misbehavior with various characteristics of the desist such as clarity and firmness. He did not find consistent significant relationships between the style of the teacher's desist behavior and getting the child to stop the deviant behavior and return to on-task behavior. The only consistent finding in this regard was that when teachers display anger or punitiveness in their desist behaviors, pupils in a class tend to react with more behavior disruption such as overt signs of anxiety, restlessness and reduced involvement with the ongoing task than when teachers use desists that are not given in an angry or punitive fashion. Therefore, displays of anger or punitive behavior should be avoided by the teacher. Such teacher behavior has a negative effect not only on the child who is the target but on other children as well.

Suggesting Alternative Behavior

Often, the teacher may stop deviant or off-task behavior by suggesting some alternate behavior to the deviant pupil. For example, if two children are whispering the teacher can stop the off-task behavior by asking one of the children to pass out papers or perform some other task which removes him from the off-task situation. If the teacher is truly "with it", she will note whether the deviant behavior has resumed after the pupil completes the alternate behavior that she has assigned to him. If the deviant behavior does resume, the teacher should try another strategy such as concurrent praise or description of desirable behavior. However, if the deviant behavior begins to spread to other children or constitutes a serious disruption to the class activities, the teacher should immediately use a firm, non-punitive desist.

Concurrent Praise

In many cases, if a child is involved in minor deviant behavior or off-task behavior, the teacher can get him back on task by concurrently praising the behavior of a student who is on-task. This concurrent praise can be directed at a child sitting near the off-task child or can be directed to all children in the group who were on task. Concurrent praise should also be specific, i.e., the teacher should identify the specific on-task behavior that is being praised. Some examples of concurrent praise are: (1) "John, I like the way you got out your workbook and got right down to doing the lesson." (John sits next to Jim who has started drawing pictures instead of getting out his workbook). (2) "Mary, Joe and Bill, you are doing a fine job of following in your reader while Jane reads." (In this case, the teacher has praised all the children in the reading group except Frank who has been looking out the window instead of following the reading activity). (3) "I like the way most of you have worked on your science assignment without whispering or disturbing others." (In this case, two children in the group are whispering while the rest of the children are on-task). When using this technique, the teacher must be careful not to use a punitive tone of voice or in any way compare one child unfavorably with another. For instance, the statement, "Jane, can you tell Lori the question, you do such a good job of listening in class," may have the desired effect of getting Lori, who didn't hear the question, to pay attention, but it also compares Lori to Jane unfavorably. The same effect could be accomplished by simply making a positive statement to Jane and no reference at all to Lori; i.e., "Jane, can you repeat the question for us? You have been doing a very good job of listening in class." Here the teacher overlooks Lori's unacceptable behavior completely while concurrently praising Jane's acceptable behavior.

Therefore, concurrent praise is a desirable strategy because it praises on-task behavior and does not give attention to the deviant or off-task child. Yet, even retarded children quickly recognize that when they misbehave, their peers receive praise which is being withheld from them. Concurrent praise is effective in bringing most deviant or off-task children back to on-task behavior.

Describe Desirable Behavior

A deviant behavior can often be stopped if the teacher either (1) describes the desirable behavior that should be going on as an alternate to the deviant behavior, or (2) states the classroom rule regarding the deviant behavior or (3) asks the deviant student to describe the desirable behavior or state the rule. Describing desirable behavior can take several forms. For example, the teacher can state a rule without directing this statement to any particular child. Let us suppose, for example, that the class has a rule that when they finish an assignment early, they can work on their art project for the remainder of the period. If a child gets out his art work before completing the assignment, the teacher might say "Remember class, our rule is that you can work on your art project only after you have finished your assignment." Under the same conditions, the teacher could direct the rule at the deviant child by saying, "John, remember our rule is that you cannot work on your art project until you have finished your reading assignment" or the teacher could ask the child to state the rule by saying, "John, what is the class rule about working on your art project?" Or the teacher could describe the child's usual behavior by saying, "John, you usually are very good about getting your assignments finished before working on your art project."

The Effects of Withitness Strategies

When using Withitness behaviors described in this lesson, the teacher should always note carefully the effects of her behavior on the off-task or misbehaving pupil. Different Withitness behaviors work best with different pupils. By carefully noting the effect of your Withitness behavior on a given child you can quickly determine which behavior is most likely to be successful for a given child under a given set of conditions. Being "withit" not only means that you quickly notice deviant or off-task behavior and make some overt move to stop such behavior, it also means that you are alert to the effects of your strategies.

Ignoring Deviant Behavior

Since many children use deviant behavior as a device to gain teacher attention, the teacher can sometimes extinguish the deviant behavior by ignoring it. If the behavior is minor and is not seriously disturbing other pupils, you may wish to try ignoring some deviant behaviors. You should note carefully whether ignoring these behaviors, however, is successful in stopping the behavior and returning the pupil to his regular classroom work. This approach is not always effective since much deviant behavior is not designed to gain teacher attention. For example, if the pupil's real goal is to get the attention of his peers, it will do no good for the teacher to ignore the behavior since the teacher is not the source of reinforcement. Another problem with ignoring deviant behavior is that students may conclude that the teacher does not know what is going on, i.e., she is not "with it".

WITHITNESS TRANSCRIPT *

Instructions:

There are several teacher behaviors which can be employed to demonstrate that the teacher knows what is going on in the classroom and thereby reduce the frequency of off-task behavior. Four of these behaviors are:

1. Desist -- The teacher demonstrates Withitness by telling students to stop the deviant or off-task behavior. In order to be effective, the desist must be directed at the student who initiated the deviant behavior and must be administered before the deviant behavior spreads or becomes more serious (D+). If the desist is not timely or on target, it is a negative desist referred to as (D-).
2. Suggest Alternative Behavior -- When deviant behavior occurs, the teacher diverts the disruptive or off-task student by suggesting that he engage in an alternative behavior.
3. Concurrent Praise -- The teacher avoids direct confrontation with a student who is displaying deviant or off-task behavior by concurrently praising the non-deviant or on-task behavior of other students.
4. Description of Desirable Behavior -- The teacher describes or has the off-task student describe the desirable behavior which the student usually exhibits or should exhibit in place of the on-going deviant or off-task behavior.

The following is a list of classroom situations involving off-task or deviant student behavior. Each teacher response is an example of one of the four verbal teacher skills listed above. To the left of each situation, write the appropriate symbol as follows:

D+ -- Desist (Use D- if the Desist is not timely and on-target.)

SAB -- Suggestion of Alternative Behavior

CP -- Concurrent Praise

DDB -- Description of Desirable Behavior

NA -- Not an example of any of the Withitness behaviors.

T: Now let's get out our textbooks (teacher pauses as students get out materials; however, Dave is reading the school newspaper).

1. ____ T: I'm glad to see Tony and James are all ready to start our discussion. They have their textbooks out and are ready to begin.

(Dave continues to read.)

2. ____ T: Dave would you please hand out these worksheets.

(Jeff reaches over and punches Tim.)

3. ____ T: Jeff, you're usually very attentive in class. What's the trouble?

(Jeff punches Tim again, and Tim punches back.)

4. ____ T: Jeff leave Tim alone and pay attention to the lesson. No more nonsense.

(Lou is thumbing through the textbook when the teacher calls on her to read.)

5. ____ T: Lou, you usually listen and know exactly where we are. Please try to stay with the class.

(Virginia pokes student in front of her with pencil.)

6. ____ T: Virginia, not only does that bother Eric, it's also dangerous.

(Tom tries to get Julie's attention by tapping her on the shoulder.)

7. ____ T: Rick and Lori; I appreciate the way you two are paying attention. You're doing a fine job.

(Eric cannot supply an answer from the homework assignment because he did not do the work.)

8. ____ T: Eric, What is our procedure when I give a class assignment for everyone?

(Jeff reaches over and knocks James' books off the desk.)

9. ____ T: Jeff, how many times have I told you to keep your hands to yourself? (Jeff tries to explain) No, I don't want to hear anything about it, just pay attention and keep your hands to yourself.

(Lori is looking for something in her notebook when called upon by the teacher.)

10. ____ T: Jane can you give us the answer. You've been doing a good job of listening and keeping up today.

(As teacher collects paper, Virginia and Eric start to whisper.)

11. ____ T: I'd like to have Virginia and Eric pass out the worksheets for tomorrow.

SUPPLEMENT C

SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR
TEACHER LANGUAGE

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SESSION III

Overview

Session III begins with the section entitled "Supporting Behavior". After viewing the film entitled "Supporting Behavior", a teacher can better understand the effect supporting behavior has on the self-concept, emotional development, cognitive development, and social development of students.

"Teacher Language" contains four subtopics which stress the importance of effective teacher language. The first subtopic, "Clarity" suggests the use of precise, short, and simple statements or questions for explaining a concept or an idea. The second subtopic, "Organization", emphasizes the need for reviews of past subject matter and current subject matter at the beginning, the end, and other appropriate places during the lesson. The third subtopic, "Emphasis", points out effective techniques such as voice modulation, paraphrasing and cueing which indicate important points for students to remember. The last subtopic, "Feedback" imparts the need to solicit feedback from students to determine their understanding, interest, and attitude toward subject matter.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Supporting Behavior" and "Teacher Language". "Teacher Language" has four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided you may test your learning comprehension by completing them individually or in small groups. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Supporting Behavior*

1. Read the opening statement and complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
2. View the film.
3. Review film observations by doing the Post-Viewing Activities in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
5. Read and study the subtopic, "The Concept of Self is a Product of Transactions With Others".
6. Complete in your own words the exercise, "Proposed Effects of Supporting Behavior" while working in small groups.
7. After observing one of your students, do the exercise, "Actual Effects of Supporting Behavior".
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Teacher Language*

A. Clarity

1. Read and study "Clarity - Description of the Concept".
2. Check your learning comprehension by doing the transcript, "Clarity".
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

B. Organization**

1. Read and study "Organization -Description of the Concept".
2. After reading the concept or during the presentation, fill in the necessary information on the "Organization" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Organization" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

C. Emphasis**

1. Read and study "Emphasis - Description of the Concept".
2. After reading about the concept or during the presentation, provide the necessary information for the "Emphasis" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Emphasis" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

D. Feedback**

1. Read and study "Feedback - Description of the Concept".
2. After reading about the concept or during the presentation, test your understanding by doing the "Feedback" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Feedback" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

** Note - The facilitator may assign these topics to small groups for presentation to the entire class.

SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR *

SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR

It is generally agreed that parents and teachers profoundly influence both the intellectual and emotional development of children through supporting behavior. To be an effective influence for positive development, adult supporting behavior must be thoughtful and consistent.

I. PRE-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

1. In your own words define supporting behavior.

2. Recall the events of the past week. You must have noticed some situations in which adults exhibited supporting behavior toward children. Briefly describe the specific, observable behaviors that you would label as supporting.

II. NOW VIEW THE FILM: SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR

III. POST-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

These activities will help you to further develop your understanding of supporting behavior. They will help you become more sensitive to the characteristics of supporting behavior, more aware of opportunities to be supporting, and more considerate of the consequences for children.

1. Begin to organize your thoughts by restating the film definition for supporting behavior.

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2. List the supporting behaviors that you observed in the film. (List only what you saw, not what you may have inferred.)

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IV.THE CONCEPT OF SELF IS A PRODUCT OF TRANSACTIONS WITH OTHERS.

Transaction is the negotiation of meaning between yourself and others. When you express an idea or behavior, another responds to indicate a degree of understanding or agreement. The response "feeds back" to you, causing you to maintain or correct your own understanding of the original idea or behavior. Through this feedback process you constantly "check out" the sensibility, logic and acceptability of your own expressions. You come to regard your language as clear if others indicate they understand your meaning. You regard your logic as sound if others agree that it is so. You regard yourself as worthy if others tell you that you are worthy.

As you transact with others you are "checking yourself out." You negotiate your identity in your own eyes and in others. When you receive positive, reinforcing feedback about your ideas and behaviors, it means that other people see you as favorable as you see yourself. Negative, disparaging feedback, means that others see you unfavorably. If you consistently receive negative feedback, your self-concept changes to to bring it in line with the views of those others.

A teacher who seeks opportunities to support a child provides important feedback which helps that child develop a stronger, more competent self-image. This information helps the child clarify who he is, what he can do, and what he might become.

> A person who believes, realistically or not, that he is likely to succeed and that he deserves respect and attention will present a posture of confidence and thereby increase the likelihood of his success and the respectful attention of others. Such a person's expectations become a reality to others as well as to himself, both by virtue of his overt actions and statements, and by the energizing effects that positive expectations for the future are likely to have upon the present.

S. Coopersmith, Antecedents of Self-Esteem
(San Francisco: W. H. Freeman, 1967)

A pupil's expectations of self are generated and maintained through the process of transaction with significant others. A teacher is a "significant other" in a pupil's life.

V. PROPOSED EFFECTS OF SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR

What do you think happens to a child when you sustain, uphold and defend him? What meanings are you transacting with him? With others who may be involved? Use the chart below to organize and record your ideas.

Effects of Supporting Behavior on Child's...

	Immediate Effects	Long-Term Effects
...Self-Concept		
...General Emotional Development		
...Cognitive Development		
...Social Development		

VI. ACTUAL EFFECTS OF SUPPORTING BEHAVIOR

Choose a pupil from your class whom you recognize as needing support. Over a five-day period make a point of supporting him frequently. Look for opportunities to do so. At the end of the five-day period notice any changes in the child. Record these in the table below.

Effects of Supporting Behavior on Child's...

	Describe Changes You Have Seen Occur	Describe Changes You Think Occurred
...Self-concept		
...General Emotional Development		
...Cognitive Development		
...Social Development		

CLARITY

Description of the Concept*

Introduction

This module deals with the concept CLARITY as it relates to teacher verbal behavior in the classroom. The principle underlying CLARITY may be stated as follows: Teacher use of clear and precise language tends to make the material more understandable and increases student achievement.

The concept CLARITY can be useful as a general guide to follow in your teaching. For example, a sign with the word CLARITY posted in your room will serve as a general reminder to both you and your students of the importance of this concept in effective communication. However, to be most valuable in improving your teaching, you should translate this abstract concept into specific behaviors that you can incorporate into your teaching style. You can then focus your attention on these behaviors until you use them naturally and effectively. This module will introduce you to three behavioral indicators of CLARITY. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are many other ways that a teacher can apply CLARITY to teaching. However, these three have been chosen for emphasis because (1) they can be used in a wide range of teaching situations, (2) they have been found to bring about improvement in student achievement, and (3) they are simple enough for you to master without practice in a regular classroom.

Learner Objectives

At the completion of this module you should understand and be able to apply the concept of CLARITY. You will be asked to identify examples or violations of the three behavioral indicators of CLARITY when given a transscript of a classroom situation.

The Behavioral Indicators

In the field of communication, "noise" is defined as any extraneous auditory sound(s) which interfere with the transmission of the communicated message. The major purpose of the behavioral indicators presented below are to illustrate ways in which the teacher can present material in a clear manner without the presence of "noise", thus lessening the chance of misinterpretation on the part of the student.

To achieve an understanding of the concept of CLARITY, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following three behavioral indicators:

1. Precise Language--The teacher avoids the use of vague or ambiguous language in classroom presentation and utilizes precise and definite language in directions, description, and illustrations.

2. Asking Single Questions--The teacher calls for an answer to only one question at a time, rather than asking two or more questions before seeking a student response.

3. Defining New Words--The teacher introduces new terms by defining them or eliciting student definitions and seeking feedback to determine if students have a clear understanding of their meaning.

Precise Language

All teachers use vague and imprecise words such as "some, much, few, seem, may. . ." but those who fail in the art of classroom communication tend to use them in greater proportion. It is not the intent of this module to eliminate from your vocabulary all words that are somewhat imprecise. However, whenever the content of your lesson permits a choice between vague and precise statements, you should strive toward precise language. Research has clearly demonstrated that your students will learn more effectively if you use precise language and avoid vague language. The following is a list of words common to everyday speech that tend to make your descriptive remarks vague or ambiguous. Use such words only when more precise language is not appropriate.

some
many
of course
a little
things

few
much
maybe
in fact
you see

perhaps
probably
something
actually

At times, non-specific words such as "some" or "probably" are appropriate in teaching. Sometimes, a divergent, non-specific question is very effective in stimulating students to seek a solution for problems. For example, a teacher might say, "Let us imagine that we were asked to set up a colony on the Moon. There are many things we would have to consider. Remembering all that we have learned about the Moon, what are some of the problems we would probably have to solve?" This question uses vague words effectively to encourage a divergent approach to the problem. The student must bring together different "bits" of information, rearrange them in a new configuration, and apply them to the question. Thus, imprecise language is often useful in divergent or open-ended questions. Precise language, on the other hand, is most effective in teacher descriptions, in presenting new information to students, and in answering student questions.

Another important aspect of clarity is the complexity of terminology and sentence structure. In their monumental volume Learning from Films, May and Lumsdaine (1958) investigated how a variety of independent variables influence one's ability to acquire new knowledge. One of their studies was designed to determine the effects of ambiguous language. In this study a 20-minute film "What is China" was rewritten so that there were two versions of the commentary. The difficult version was an attempt to imitate the style of more advanced high school textbooks. A second or easy version was made by breaking long sentences into short ones, replacing academic constructions by colloquialisms, simplifying the grammar and replacing unfamiliar words with familiar ones. The commentaries were then split in half so that each group of subjects received one-half of the easy commentary and one-half of the difficult. One hundred and thirteen pupils from the 7th and 8th grade viewed film version A (first half difficult, second half easy) and 119 pupils viewed film version B (first half easy, second half difficult). Results from a post-test evaluation found that differences were not significant between the two first halves but were significant favoring the easy version at the .01 level for the second halves. In terms of achievement, those who had the easy version on the second half gained about one third more than those who had the difficult version. These results clearly demonstrate that your use of clear, simple language as a teacher can have a significant effect upon the learning of your students.

Asking Single Questions

Another simple teacher language pattern that can improve student achievement is the use of single questions in discussion and recitation lessons. This component of clarity was investigated by Wright and Nuthall (1970). In this study, the investigators correlated teacher behavior variables with student achievement in the mastery of science concepts. They found that teacher "utterances" (an utterance was defined as a single teacher-pupil interaction) containing only one question were positively and significantly related to achievement (r=.43), while asking two or more questions before getting an answer was negatively related to achievement (r=.52). This led the researchers to conclude that greater pupil knowledge of subject matter will be produced by teachers who ask relatively direct questions one at a time which can be answered by pupils without the need for additional information or rephrasing of the question. One of the great problems of students at all academic levels is figuring out what the teacher wants. When you, as a teacher, ask two different questions in the same breath or mix your questions with your expository remarks, many students will inevitably be confused. Confusion of this sort is frustrating to your students and, as research has demonstrated, interferes significantly with their learning.

Defining New Words

In the process of acquiring new knowledge and dealing with new ideas, the student is constantly adding new words to his vocabulary. The work of May and Lumsdaine (1958), cited earlier, clearly indicates that achievement is adversely affected when the student is confronted with words as they arise. One of the most important habits you can develop is to be alert to new words and provide definitions when new words are introduced.

Since students in a given classroom differ greatly in their vocabulary levels, it is usually possible to elicit definitions of new words from your class. If none of your students can define the new word, you can often help them discover the definition. Clues to the meaning of a word can usually be obtained by breaking the word into its parts or by analyzing the context in which the word is used. You should encourage students to try definitions by context analysis. New words are often related to words the students already know. The class should be encouraged to study the makeup of the new word in seeking clues to its meaning.

The aforementioned strategies usually result in students arriving at a suitable definition. If your efforts to elicit student definitions fail, you should either give the class a definition or refer students to the dictionary. The important point to remember is that new words must be defined if the student is to learn. Helping students arrive at a definition is usually preferable to your giving a definition, but in either case, understanding the new word is essential.

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CLARITY TRANSCRIPT *

Instructions:

There are several specific skills that teachers can use to make their classroom discussion less ambiguous. Employing these techniques will increase student achievement. Three such skills are:

1. Defining new words--The teacher introduces new terms by defining them or eliciting student definitions and seeking feedback to determine if students have a clear understanding of their meaning.
2. Precise Language--The teacher avoids the use of vague or ambiguous language in classroom presentation and utilizes precise and definite language in directions, descriptions and illustrations..
3. Asking single questions--The teacher calls for an answer to only one question at a time, rather than two or more questions before seeking a student response.

The following is a transcript taken from a classroom situation. Throughout the transcript you will find that teacher remarks are underlined.

Read each remark and decide whether it is an example or a violation of one of the three verbal procedures listed above. Then write the appropriate symbol as follows:

Dt	Teacher defines new words (if teacher elicits student definitions, use Ds)
Pl+	Precise language (if teacher violates this procedure by using vague language, use Pl-)
Sq+	Single question (if teacher violates this procedure by using multiple questions, use Sq-) - If the single question is asking for a definition, score as a definition.
NA	Not an example or violation of any of these behaviors.

T: Class, today's story has to do with a person that has a handicap. 1.____ John, do you know anyone who has a handicap?

John: I'm not sure, What does handicap mean?

T: Look at the word as I write it on the board. Handicap.
2.____ Who can tell me what the word handicap means? Rosy?

Rosy: Well, like if you're blind, deaf, or you can't talk, then you have a handicap.

3.____ T: Okay, these are types of handicaps. Martha?

Martha: Don't you have a handicap when you are given points so that you are even with others?

T: Yes, if you are thinking of a sport.

Martha: Well, I was thinking of golf.

4.____ T: Okay, that may have something to do with this. Brian? (The underlined section is a violation of one of the behavioral indicators. Indicate which one.)

Brian: How many people in the United States are handicapped?

5.____ T: Well, there are quite a few. (The underlined section is a violation of one of the behavioral indicators. Indicate which one.) Who else can respond to this question? So far, Rosy has said that blind and deaf people are handicapped and what Martha said is also true. Handicaps are involved in some sports. If you're not quite as good a player as someone else, you may be given a handicap. For example, if you bowl and you aren't very good, you will be given a certain number of points at the beginning of the game or they may add so many points to your game. Tami?

Tami: Doesn't handicapped mean crippled?

T: Crippled or disadvantaged. In the story they used the
word handicapped for someone who is disadvantaged. If
6. ____ you are at a disadvantage when you are handicapped, what
would you say that this means? Rosy?

Rosy: Um, if you are blind, you would have an advantage if you
could see.

T: Okay, then if someone cannot see they are at a disadvan-
7. ____ tage. If you broke this word into syllables, you would
have dis and advantage. If advantage means to have an
edge on someone, what does the prefix dis mean? Melissa?

Melissa: Well, if you're not content.

T: Clark?

Clark: It means not.

8. ____ T: That's correct. It means not or without. Without an
advantage. So a person with a handicap is without an ad-
vantage or lacking in a certain area. Many people have
handicaps. I would even chance to say that everyone of
you in the room has some kind of handicap. However, your
handicaps are probably small ones; like, maybe you cannot
run as fast as others can, so when you're playing a run-
ning game, you are handicapped. Maybe you cannot read as
well as others in your class. When you're reading or when
you're doing something with reading you are handicapped.
Physical handicaps are like being blind or deaf. What's
9. ____ another kind of physical handicap? Can you think of some-
thing that can be wrong with your body or something that

would make you different? Kristine? (The underlined section is a violation of one of the behavioral indicators, indicate which one.)

Kristine: Retarded?

T: Maybe, retarded. Mike?

Mike: Crippled hands.

10. ____ T: Yes, that's an example of a physical handicap. Can someone give another example?

Rosy: Lack of speech.

T: Lack of speech or speech problem. Okay, in today's story the person in the story has a physical handicap. Her name is Helen Keller and I'm sure many of you have heard about her. Today's story describes her handicap and part of her life. Some people are born with their handicaps

11. ____ but not Helen Keller. At 19 months she was ill and had a very high fever which caused her to become blind and deaf. In the story it tells how Helen Keller partially corrects her handicaps with the help of a therapist.

12. ____ Does anyone know what a therapist is? Jeff?

Jeff: Well, it's a person who helps another person.

13. ____ T: What does a speech therapist do?

Jeff: I know he gives kids lessons and they practice them to make them talk better.

T: Do you have anything to add, Melissa?

Melissa: Yes, isn't a speech therapist sort of like a doctor?

14. ____ T: To become a speech therapist one must attend a university or college which offers a graduate program in speech

therapy. He usually goes to college five or six years before he is ready to help people who have speech problems.

Niel: But there are other kinds of therapists too, besides speech.

15. ____ T: Yes, a therapist is a person who has studied one type of problem or handicap and then uses the skills he has learned to help people overcome their handicap. Of course, all handicaps cannot be cured. For example, it is often not possible to correct the vision of the blind so that they

16. ____ can see again. But what can be done to help blind people overcome their handicap? Margery?

Margery: Maybe they could be taught Braille.

T: Okay, blind people who can read Braille can overcome part of the handicap of being blind.

Greg: How do people read in Braille?

17. ____ T: Well, symbols to represent letters are pressed into the paper so the paper has raised dots on it. The blind person runs his fingers over the paper and can read by feeling how the dots are arranged.

ORGANIZATION

Description of the Concept *

Introduction

This instructional package deals with teacher language that is designed to aid students in organizing their learning. We will call the concept upon which this kind of teacher language is based ORGANIZATION. The principle underlying ORGANIZATION may be stated as follows: Teacher language designed to help the student organize his learning and place it in context tends to increase student achievement. Research has clearly demonstrated the validity of this principle. Therefore, an understanding of this concept and of the ways it can be applied to your classroom behavior can make you a more effective teacher.

Presently, the concept ORGANIZATION has little meaning to you. Consequently, you have no way of utilizing this in your teaching behavior. Before you can begin to employ organization in your classroom teaching behavior, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In short, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply ORGANIZATION in your teaching. In this module you will be introduced to four behavioral indicators of ORGANIZATION. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can use in the classroom to apply the concept. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to apply organization to teaching. These four have been chosen for emphasis because (1) they can be used in a wide range of teaching situations, (2) they bring about substantial improvement in student participation and (3) they are simple enough for you to master without practice in a regular classroom.

Learner Objectives

At the completion of this module you should understand and be able to apply the concept of ORGANIZATION. You will be asked to present an explanation of the concept, and the teacher behaviors involved, to the group and provide examples by either (1) role playing a classroom situation or, (2) developing a series of teacher statements that demonstrate the concept of ORGANIZATION, to be identified by the group.

The Behavioral Indicators

To achieve an understanding of the concept of ORGANIZATION, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following behavioral indicators:

1. Teacher Elicits Review--At the start of the lesson and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher frames questions to elicit from students review of relevant past learning.

2. Teacher Reviews--At the beginning and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher supplies a review of relevant past learning.

3. Terminal Structure--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher adds content relevant information which has not been covered in the discussion.

4. Summary Review--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher reviews the main ideas and the essential content of the lesson.

Using these simple but significant behaviors can make a considerable difference in your teaching effectiveness. Your continued use of these four behaviors will lead students to more effectively organize their learning and thus increase student achievement.

Teacher Elicits Review

It is not uncommon to find teachers beginning their class discussion with a point blank barrage of dates, names, places and events. Often, this leaves the students confused as to how this new information relates to previous learning and also unsure of the direction that will be taken with the new material to be covered. This "coming from nowhere and moving in who knows what direction" can be eliminated by good ORGANIZATION. Teacher language which elicits from the student a review of relevant past learning contributes to good organization. Essentially, this process involves the teacher implementing effective questioning procedures. The questions should be posed in such a manner so as to provide a foundation of ideas and information upon which you can build the new lesson. Your questions also help you determine what specifically the students do not know. In order to accomplish this, your questions should begin with broad topics and gradually become more specific. For example, a teacher might follow the following lines of questioning:

Teacher (T):	Alex, what were we discussing yesterday?
Alex:	Well, we were talking about war.
T:	Can you tell me what war we were discussing?
Alex:	It was the Civil War.
T:	Good. Can you tell me what we did discuss?
Alex:	Well, we talked about the causes for the north to fight the south.
T:	What was one specific cause we mentioned?
Alex:	Well, in the south they wanted to keep the Negroes slaves 'cause they needed them to pick cotton and the people in the north didn't want to have slaves 'cause they didn't have any cotton to be picked.

Another example of eliciting a student review is: "John, would you tell us all you can about our discussion about fruit flies in science class yesterday."

Not only does this technique help students establish the information base they need to move on to new ideas and content, but it also indicates to the teacher where his/her teaching failed to communicate. Hence, the teacher is in a better position to effectively reconstruct the deficits of the previous instructional sequence and thus supply the missing information.

Teacher Review

The teacher review of past learning is different from the teacher elicited review in that the teacher takes the initiative of providing the content or ideas needed by the student to move ahead. Here, rather than question the students, it becomes the job of the teacher to synthesize and integrate the data. Often times, this means clarification of previously misconstrued concepts. In this case, the teacher briefly outlines or summarizes for the student the relevant information. Examples of teacher review are as follows: "Yesterday we discovered in our science experiments several properties of light. We found that light travels in straight lines, and that it can be reflected, absorbed, diffused and bent." "Yesterday, we talked about cell construction. The main point from this lesson is that the nucleus, cytoplasm and cell wall are the basic structures found in almost all living cells."

This process of review provides a situation in which misconceptions can be corrected, lacking information added, and a foundation built from which the teacher can move to more complex concepts or new content.

Observation and analysis of teachers who are well organized has led to the conclusion that the establishment of the knowledge base (that is, checking for the amount of knowledge and comprehension level of the student) is an important part of the organized teacher's repertoire of behaviors.

Terminating the Lesson

The two behavioral indicators included under this heading are (1) terminal structure, and (2) summary review. These behavioral indicators are very similar and generally cannot be differentiated by an observer unless he knows in detail what the class has previously covered. In providing terminal structure, the teacher adds new content-relevant information that has not been covered in the discussion. In summary review, the teacher brings together the main points that have been covered in the discussion. Terminal structuring is particularly useful if the topic is to be discussed further since it helps to set the stage for the next discussion. Both terminal structuring and summary review, when used by the teacher to organize presentation, correlate with increased student achievement.

Two examples of terminal structuring are as follows: "Today in our lesson we have talked about the continental shelf which extends into the ocean from the shore of the continent. But, we didn't mention depth of the shelf. Did you know the average depth of the shelf is 400 feet?" "In our science lesson today, we talked about the Sun, but I didn't talk about the materials that compose it. More than 99% of the Sun's mass is made up of hydrogen and helium."

Examples of summary review are as follows: "We have a very interesting lesson today on light. In this lesson, we discovered that light from the Sun is not simple, but is made up of many colors. A prism, such as we used in class today, sorts white light into these many colors." "An atom, as we discovered in our science discussion today, is a tiny particle of which substances are made. The nucleus of an atom is made up of protons and neutrons. Composing the rest of the atom are electrons which orbit around the nucleus."

Summary

The concept ORGANIZATION is concerned with teaching language that is designed to aid students in organizing their learning. The four specific behavioral indicators of ORGANIZATION that we have presented are all used to focus the learner's attention on information or ideas that you as the teacher want him to remember. An extremely difficult problem for most students is figuring out what is and is not important and relevant information. Typically, the student does not have enough background in the area of study to make this differentiation without help. You as the teacher can aid him by using the following four behavioral indicators:

1. Teacher Elicits Review--At the start of the lesson and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher frames questions to elicit from students review of relevant past learning.

2. Teacher Reviews--At the beginning and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher supplies a review of relevant past learning.

3. Terminal Structure--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher adds content relevant information which has not been covered in the lesson discussion.

4. Summary Review--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher reviews the main ideas and the essential content of the lesson.

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ORGANIZATION

Worksheet*

In order to demonstrate understanding of the concept ORGANIZATION, it is necessary that you can state the principle underlying this concept and be able to list and briefly define four specific behavioral indicators that a teacher can use to apply this concept to the classroom situation.

As the concept and behavioral indicators are explained, fill out the following worksheet.

---

1. State the principle underlying the concept ORGANIZATION in your own words.

____

____

____

2. Name and briefly define four teacher language skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the classroom to apply ORGANIZATION.

(a) Name:________________ Definition:____________________

____

____

(b) Name:________________ Definition:____________________

____

____

(c) Name:________________ Definition:____________________

____

____

(d) Name:________________ Definition:____________________

____

____

EMPHASIS

Description of the Concept*

Introduction

This module deals with teacher language that is designed to emphasize important facts or concepts. We will call the concept upon which this kind of teacher language is based EMPHASIS. The principle underlying EMPHASIS may be stated: Teacher language designed to draw students' attention to important content tends to increase student achievement. Research has clearly demonstrated the validity of this principle. Therefore, you can become a more effective teacher if you have an understanding of this concept and of the ways it can be applied in your classroom behavior.

At the present time, the concept EMPHASIS has little meaning for you. In order to apply EMPHASIS in your teaching, it will be necessary to translate this abstract concept into meaningful specific behaviors. In other words, you must learn specific techniques in order to apply EMPHASIS in your teaching. In this module you will be introduced to three behavioral indicators of EMPHASIS. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to apply EMPHASIS in teaching. These three have been chosen because (1) they can be used in a wide range of teaching situations, (2) they bring about substantial improvement in student participation, and (3) they are simple enough for you to master without practice in a regular classroom.

Learner Objectives

At the completion of this module, you should understand and be able to apply the concept of EMPHASIS. You will be asked to present an explanation of the concept, and the teacher behaviors involved, to the group and provide examples by either (1) role playing a classroom situation or, (2) developing a series of teacher statements that demonstrate the concept of EMPHASIS, to be identified by the group.

The Behavioral Indicators

To achieve an understanding of the concept EMPHASIS, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following behavioral indicators:

1. Voice Modulation--The teacher uses voice tone and inflection to point out and emphasize main or important facts or concepts.

2. Paraphrasing--The teacher repeats the most important content of either a student response or of her own remarks using different words or phrases.

3. Cueing--The teacher calls the learner's attention to important points by using phrases such as "this is important," or "be sure to remember this."

Although these are simple behaviors, their use can make a significant difference in your teaching effectiveness. Do not underestimate their importance.

Voice Modulation

Most teachers spend over half of their time in the classroom talking to students. Must of this talk is devoted to explaining and expository teaching, i.e. transmitting content information to the learner. The language skills you use in explaining, describing, and transmitting information have a great deal to do with your effectiveness as a teacher. The difference between an exciting and a dull class can often be attributed to the teacher's ability to skillfully use verbal emphasis and voice modulation in both oral presentations and classroom discussions.

Research has indicated that teacher verbal emphasis has a positive effect on student achievement. Also, words or sets of words that are verbally emphasized by the teacher are more often learned or remembered by the student.

Paraphrasing

"Tell 'em what you're gonna tell 'em, tell 'em, and then tell 'em what you told 'em." This and the similar rule of thumb for written exposition that every paragraph should begin and end with a topic sentence is the essence of paraphrasing. Research has indicated that students understand a lecture better if each main point is mentioned at the start of the lecture and reviewed at the end of the lecture. By introducing a point explicitly instead of just moving into it, students are prepared to listen for the specific concept. Likewise, restating the point after discussing it is important if the student is to obtain a concise and accurate picture of the important concepts. Teachers sometimes feel that it is unnatural and merely worthless to restate a main point after discussing it, saying that this kind of repetition is merely a waste of time. But, important points demand this kind of repetition. In a review of research, it has been found that students increase achievement scores when their teachers paraphrase important points.

In addition to emphasizing main points, paraphrasing also increases the probability of the learner understanding what you are saying. A student who does not understand your first explanation will often "get it" if you restate the same idea in different words.

Cueing

There are several kinds of cueing that a teacher can use to emphasize important ideas and information. One of the simplest and most effective is direct cueing. In direct cueing, you call the learner's attention to important points by using such phrases as "this is important". . ."this next idea is critical". . ."pay particular attention to". . ."be sure to remember". . ."most importantly". . . and "now get this". . . . These phrases signal the student to pay attention to the information immediately coming.

One of the most difficult problems students have is identifying important points. Studies of lecture notes taken by college students demonstrate that even at this level most students miss a substantial proportion of important points covered in a lecture. Direct cueing can greatly help the student in identifying the concepts you want him to learn.

In addition to directly cueing main points, there are several other cueing techniques that you can use to help your students. Among these are gesturing and enumeration.

Gesturing can be divided into two categories--intentional and casual. Intentional gestures are those that are thought out beforehand and are inserted specifically for an emphasis of main points. The casual gesture is different in that it occurs during the delivery of the lecture, and is not closely tied to content. Our concern here is with making gestures intentional so as to cue students to important information. With continued practice, intentional gestures can become a natural part of your regular teaching behavior. It has been found that intentional movements of either hands, body, or face makes the important point easier for students to identify and remember. For example, pointing to a map or demonstrating conflict with clenched fists can cue students to important points and make your presentation more interesting.

Enumeration, another technique of cueing, is accomplished by starting your presentation by outlining or briefly stating the main ideas, reasons, or points, and then enumerating each as it is presented. As you can see, enumeration is similar to paraphrasing. Lecturing or conducting a classroom discussion in this manner helps the student to organize the lecture in his own mind before it is presented. This preview immediately enables the student to isolate the distinct ideas and separate the main points to be remembered.

You should remember that cueing techniques can only complement and give additional meaning to your oral exposition. They cannot compensate for a sloppy, unorganized, or confused presentation.

Summary

The concept EMPHASIS refers to teacher language which is used to focus the learner's attention on information, ideas, concepts, or facts that you, as the teacher, want the student to remember. One of the great dilemmas for most students, be they in nursery school or graduate school, is figuring out what they are to learn. As a rule, the student does not have enough background in the area he is studying to differentiate between what is important and what is not. You, as the teacher, can greatly help him and, therefore, increase your own effectiveness by learning to apply the three behavioral indicators in this instructional package. These are:

1. Voice Modulation--The teacher uses voice tone and inflection to point out and emphasize main or important facts or concepts.

2. Paraphrasing--The teacher repeats the most important content of either a student response or of her own remarks using different words or phrases.

3. Cueing--The teacher calls the learner's attention to important points by using phrases such as "this is important," or "be sure to remember this."

Although these are very simple language behaviors, research has shown that their use can increase student achievement and make a substantial improvement in discussion lessons.

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EMPHASIS

WORKSHEET*

In order to demonstrate understanding of the concept EMPHASIS it is necessary that you can state the principle underlying this concept and be able to list and briefly define three specific behavioral indicators that a teacher can use to apply this concept to the classroom situation.

As the concept and behavioral indicators are explained, fill out the following worksheet.

---

1. State the principle underlying the concept EMPHASIS in your own words.

   ____

   ____

   ____

2. Name and briefly define three teacher language skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the classroom to apply EMPHASIS.

   (a) Name:__________________ Definition:__________________

   ____

   ____

   (b) Name:__________________ Definition:__________________

   ____

   ____

   (c) Name:__________________ Definition:__________________

   ____

   ____

FEEDBACK

Description of the Concept*

Introduction

This instructional package deals with teacher language that is designed to obtain information about your teaching from your students. We will call the concept upon which this kind of teacher language is based FEEDBACK. The principle underlying FEEDBACK may be stated as follows: Teacher language designed to solicit student feedback facilitates teacher adjustment of the learning situation to meet student needs and thus increases student achievement. Research has clearly demonstrated the validity of this principle. Therefore, you can become a more effective teacher if you have an understanding of this concept and of the ways it can be applied to your classroom.

Although basic to effective teaching, the concept FEEDBACK is not known to most teachers. Although most teachers occasionally seek student feedback, very few systematically obtain feedback and apply it to improving their teaching. Before you can begin to implement this concept in your teaching, you must translate it into specific behavioral techniques you can utilize in the classroom. Thus, in this module you will be introduced to three behavioral indicators of FEEDBACK. A behavioral indicator is a specific behavior that you can apply in the classroom. There are other behaviors that a teacher can use to obtain student feedback about his teaching. These three have been chosen for emphasis because (1) they can be used in a wide range of teaching situations, (2) they bring about a substantial improvement in student participation and attitude, and (3) they are simple enough for you to master without practice in a regular classroom.

Learner Objectives

At the completion of this module you should understand and be able to apply the concept of FEEDBACK. You will be asked to present an explanation of the concept, and the teacher behaviors involved, to the group and provide examples by either (1) role playing a classroom situation or, (2) developing a series of teacher statements that demonstrate the concept of FEEDBACK, to be identified by the group.

The Behavioral Indicators

To achieve an understanding of the concept of FEEDBACK, and be able to apply it, involves learning the following behavioral indicators:

1. Soliciting Feedback Related to Student Understanding--By questioning, the teacher determines the level of student understanding regarding the specific subject matter or ideas that have been covered in the lesson.

2. Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Interest--Through questioning and observation, the teacher identifies those areas of the curriculum that arouse student interest.

3. Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Attitude--The teacher frames questions which are designed to determine student perception of the relevance of the curricular materials.

These are simple, yet significant, behaviors which make a considerable difference in your teaching effectiveness. Do not underestimate their importance; increased student achievement will result through continued application of FEEDBACK.

Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Understanding

In this section we are concerned with information that helps you appraise student understanding. Effective teaching is often the result of adequate assessment of student progress. Differences among students in a particular class necessitate that you frequently seek feedback regarding understanding. In order to do this, it is necessary that you become proficient in asking specific questions which will yield, for you, the student level of concept mastery. Essentially, this technique consists of asking frequent questions as the lesson progresses. With this procedure, you are able to determine whether your explanations are getting through to your students. This can be done by directing questions to the group (i.e., "Is there anyone who doesn't understand what the low pressure areas mean on the weather map?"), or to individual students ("John, can you describe a low pressure area in your own words?"). Individual questions can call for longer responses and usually require the student to demonstrate his understanding rather than merely indicating that he does or does not understand. For example, "John, now that we have discussed photosynthesis, can you explain to me what this process does?" "Bill, can you give me an example of a change in an animal that can be explained by the theory of evolution?"

Soliciting feedback related to pupil understanding has been found to be positively correlated to teacher change in verbal classroom behavior. This type feedback can be a powerful aid to the teacher in adjusting teaching behavior to the needs of the students.

In summary, you should frequently seek feedback from both groups and individual students so you can ascertain their understanding of the ideas being presented or discussed. If some of your students do not understand, you should explain further, making use of paraphrasing and examples. You should also be alert to both verbal and non-verbal indications that students need more help with the lesson. Puzzled facial expressions, restlessness, and annoyance are usually signs that you have "lost" some of your students. Since success in tomorrow's lesson often hinges upon a good understanding of today's work, it is never wise to move ahead until you are satisfied that your students understand.

Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Interest

Soliciting feedback related to pupil interest is much the same as the first behavioral indicator (soliciting feedback related to pupil understanding). The difference between these two lies in the focus of your questions. In soliciting feedback related to pupil understanding the emphasis is upon the student's cognitive processes, whereas in soliciting feedback related to pupil interest, the area of concern is the pupil's motivation to learn. Here the teacher is asking the student for an emotional choice rather than an intellectual answer. By polling the class in this manner, a teacher can gear her lesson to the interests of the class. For instance, if a teacher found a particularly strong student interest in agriculture, she might focus her social studies lesson on the food crises in countries such as India and China. Very often this technique increases student attentiveness and participation in the discussion. Examples of teacher questions which yield feedback regarding pupil interest are as follows: "Which kind of mammal would you like to study first?", "What do you feel is the most exciting project in our space program?", or "What aspects of the welfare system are most interesting for you?" Questions designed to appraise student interest should be asked not only at the start of the lesson, but also as the lesson progresses. Such questions as "How many want to do something else now and return to our discussion of space travel tomorrow?" should be asked if it appears that student interest is flagging. Once student interest begins to drop, learning will slow down and you can accomplish more by moving to a different activity.

In most lessons, alternate paths of study are possible at certain points. These alternatives can be presented and students asked which interests them most. Often, different students will choose to concentrate on different alternatives, so the entire lesson will be covered by the class as a whole.

Finally, teachers often miss important educational opportunities because they are unaware of the hobbies and special interests of their students. Such special interests can often be tied to on-going class work, and can bring in stimulating ideas as well as providing important recognition for some of your students.

Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Attitude

The student's attitudes about the instructional situation can do much either to facilitate or inhibit his learning. Student perceptions of relevance are especially important and teacher solicitation of feedback should be frequent and systematic in this area. In planning your lessons, you should try to relate as much of the content as possible to those aspects of the student's life and environment that you believe your students consider to be relevant. You should try to learn as much as possible about the issues and problems that most concern your students. This kind of information often comes out in free discussion periods, reports, and papers that students write. For many students, your success as a teacher will depend to a great degree on your insight into the concerns and values of your students and your ability to relate the curriculum to these concerns. However, since you as a teacher are a product of a different generation and often a different culture than your students, gaining this insight is a difficult task. Teachers often find that just when they feel they really understand their students, something happens that makes it clear that their understanding is far from complete. Thus, it is very important that you frequently seek feedback from your students that will give you a better understanding of what they regard to be relevant. Here are some questions that can be asked that can help you get the feedback you need: (1) "Is this unit of work really important?" (2) "Who can tell me how our study of urban problems relates to things that you feel really count?" (3) "Is this question really worth studying, or should we spend our time on something else? If we should study something else, what are some things you feel are really relevant to today's world?" (4) "I've told you why I believe business math is really important to you. Am I right or wrong about this?" (5) "Let's look at the chapter titles in our Introductory Physical Science book and I will tell you a bit about each chapter. Then, I would like you to decide which topics are most important to you as an individual. We will then plan our work so we can spend most of our time on the most important topics." (6) "Is this discussion going the way you want it to go? Are we missing the point?"

Questions on relevance should be asked at the beginning of each unit of work. If students perceive a unit as irrelevant, you may be able to convince them of its importance. If not, the students' attitudes will probably interfere seriously with their learning. In discussing relevance with your students, try to avoid discussions in which you support one side of the question and the students all support the opposite view. Try to play a neutral role and encourage students to give different points of view. If your class is divided on their perceptions of the relevance of a given unit, it is possible to offer two or three alternate assignments so that each student is working in an area that he perceives to be important. "Relevance" is a value-laden and often meaningless term in today's society. Many students condemn all education as "irrelevant" without giving the matter any real thought. Don't settle for unsupported statements or slogans. Urge students to defend their positions. This forces the students to think, and any time your students are thinking you are earning your salary as a teacher.

Summary

The concept FEEDBACK refers to teacher language which is designed to obtain information relative to student interest, understanding, and attitudes. With this information, the teacher is in a better position to gear his/her instructional program to student needs. To obtain adequate student FEEDBACK in the classroom, the teacher must seek such feedback frequently and systematically. The three specific kinds of FEEDBACK (behavioral indicators) that have been presented and that you will learn to apply in this protocol instructional module are:

1. Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Understanding--By questioning, the teacher determines the level of student understanding regarding the specific subject matter or ideas that have been covered in the lesson.

2. Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Interest--Through questioning and observation, the teacher identifies those areas of the curriculum that arouse student interest.

3. Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Attitude--The teacher frames questions which are designed to determine student perception of the relevance of the curricular materials.

Although these are very simple language behaviors, their systematic use can give you insights into your students that can greatly improve your teaching skill and thus increase student achievement, interest, and motivation.

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FEEDBACK

worksheet*

In order to demonstrate understanding of the concept FEEDBACK it is necessary that you can state the principle underlying this concept and be able to list and briefly define three specific behavioral indicators that a teacher can use to apply this concept to the classroom.

As the concept and behavioral indicators are explained, fill out the following worksheet.

---

1. State the principle underlying the concept FEEDBACK in your own words.

   ____

   ____

   ____

2. Name and briefly define three teacher language skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the classroom to apply FEEDBACK.

   (a) Name: ______________ Definition: ______________

   ____

   ____

   (b) Name: ______________ Definition: ______________

   ____

   ____

   (c) Name: ______________ Definition: ______________

   ____

   ____

SUPPLEMENT D

RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR INSTRUCTIONAL CONCEPTS

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SESSION IV

Overview

"Reciprocating Behavior" is the first section of Session IV. The film presented helps a teacher identify reciprocating behavior. Through mutual exchange of ideas, the teacher can facilitate more opportunities for reticent or reluctant pupils to participate in classroom discussions.

"Instructional Concepts", containing three subtopics, presents the idea of conceptualizing the instruction process in order to make improvements in component parts of the process. The first subtopic, "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction" suggests alternate ways of looking at the total instruction process along with the variables that affect this process. By looking at verbal interaction in the subtopic, "Verbal Interaction In The Cognitive Dimension: The Relationship Between Teacher Verbal Behavior and Student Response", a teacher can become familiar with a matrix classifying modes of teacher verbal behavior that will generate productive verbal behavior from the student. The subtopic, "Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships" emphasizes the need to teach subject matter in a logical sequence and conceptualize all information into relevant categories.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections, "Reciprocating Behavior" and "Instructional Concepts". Instructional Concepts" contains three subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided you may complete them individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Reciprocating Behavior*

1. Read and study the introduction and definition of "Reciprocating Behavior."
2. In your own words, complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Classify film instances of reciprocating behavior in the Post-Viewing Activities by working in small groups.
5. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
6. Think of an example of reciprocating behavior that happened to you, then do the subtopic, "You and Reciprocating Behavior".
7. Read and study the subtopic, "More On Reciprocating Behavior".

8. Pick a class session to encourage reciprocating behavior and provide the necessary information for the subtopic, "Your Class and Reciprocating Behavior".
9. Plan a teaching strategy for students reluctant to participate in classroom discussions by completing the subtopics, "Apply The Concept To Your Own Classroom".
10. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activities in the next session.

Instructional Concepts*

A. Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction

1. Read and study "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction".
2. View the film, "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction".
3. Complete the "Model Building" exercise on "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction" in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

B. Verbal Interaction

1. Read and study "Verbal Interaction In The Cognitive Dimension: The Relationship Between Teacher Verbal Behavior and Student Response".
2. Using the page entitled "The Analytical Framework" of the subtopic you just read, complete the transcript, "Classroom #1 and #2, by identifying the verbal behavior of the teacher or student. Place your answer in the space provided by each number. There is an answer for every number.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

C. Organizing Facts

1. Read and study "Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships".
2. Read and study "Concept Teaching".
3. Using as a reference your previous reading on verbal indicators of concept teaching, complete the transcript "Organizing Facts to Teach Meaningful Relationships". Indicate in the space provided by each number, the verbal indicator that identifies the underlined portions of the teacher's conversation.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR *

RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR

Increasingly, teachers characterize pupils as being unresponsive, reluctant to participate in any but the most routine of activities, difficult to stimulate. Frequently such claims are qualified to mean that pupils are less likely to respond to teacher questions, requests or directions with the same enthusiasm as shown in previous years. Whatever the validity of these claims, it is true that many teachers are actively seeking "new" ways to stimulate pupils to participate enthusiastically in classroom activities. One important means for stimulating pupil involvement is through RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR.

Reciprocating Behavior: Behavior through which one gives of one's own ideas, emotions, skills and personal resources "in exchange" for those of another.

I. PRE-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

Describe two classroom situations in which a teacher might seek to stimulate pupil activity through "exchanging" his own ideas, skills, or emotions for those of a pupil.

a) ____

____

____

b) ____

____

____

____

What specific (observable) behaviors would indicate that an exchange has taken place?

a) ____

____

b) ____

____

II. NOW VIEW THE FILM: RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR

III. POST-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

The following activities will help you to become more observant - to identify instances of reciprocating behavior when they do occur, and to recognize opportunities for using reciprocating behavior to stimulate pupils.

- Review in your mind the examples of reciprocating behavior depicted in the film. Use the table below to summarize three examples. Describe the teacher in Column A; the pupil(s) in Column B. Use the middle columns to record the behavior expressed by the teacher, and the pupil response which the teacher hoped to stimulate.

TEACHER ⇄ PUPILS

Name/Description	Behavior Expressed	Response Sought	Name/Description
1			
2			
3			
A			B

In each case the teacher attempted to stimulate pupil(s) by structuring an exchange, saying in effect, "I'll do it first, then it's your turn." The teacher's expressed behaviors were both models of what to do and invitations to respond in kind.

IV. YOU AND RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR

Think back over the last week. Did anyone attempt to stimulate you by structuring an instance of reciprocating behavior? Identify three examples and record them into Columns A, B, or C of the table below.

Other Person ⇄ Yourself

A Name/Description	B Behavior Expressed	C Behavior Expressed	D Feelings
1			
2			
3			

Try to recall how you felt about each situation. Did you want to reciprocate (i.e., make the exchange response) so as to keep the relationship ongoing? Record your feelings in Column D.

V. MORE ON RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR

Reciprocate- to give and take mutually; to make a mutual exchange or return in kind or of like value; to move backward and forward alternately.

Webster's Dictionary

Learning is an active process requiring the pupil to concentrate his attention and energy on a productive task. In a classroom, the teacher attempts to engage his pupils in a continuing sequence of tasks through which they will learn new ideas and skills. To be most effective the teacher initiates a dialogue in which both pupils and teacher express ideas and judgments. Through the give-and-take of true dialogue both parties are stimulated to be active in the teaching-learning process.

The learning potential that can result from the reciprocation characteristic of a dialogue is greatest when the participants draw freely on their personal experiences in efforts to apply the ideas under discussion to real situations. To initiate such a dialogue, a teacher may begin by sharing his own ideas, feelings or experiences. By doing so he: a) establishes a focus for discussion; b) models the kind of behavior he wants the pupil to express; c) contributes to the development of an emotional climate in which it is safe to express oneself. To maintain the dialogue, the teacher must remember to respond in kind to pupils to continue sharing in response to pupils. It is not enough to initiate only; the teacher must also keep the dialogue alive by continuing his offers to exchange.

> The combined use of modeling and reinforcement procedures (i.e. through reciprocating behaviors) is probably the most efficacious method of transmitting, eliciting and maintaining social response patterns.

Albert Bandura, Principles of Behavior Modification (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969)

It is important to remember that in addition to providing for exchange of ideas and skills, reciprocating behavior also provides for exchange of confidence. Through such behavior, teachers and pupils are saying, "I feel secure enough to share with you - I want you to feel secure enough to share with me. We are together."

VI. YOUR CLASS AND RECIPROCATING BEHAVIOR

Choose a class session in which you hope to generate discussion or joint pupil-teacher activity. Look over the table below. Begin the class session with a determination to be self-aware. Either during or after the session, fill out the table.

MY OWN RECIPROCATING BEHAVIORS

Teacher ⇄ Pupil

Item No.	Behavior I Modeled/Offered for Exchange	Behavior Pupil Actually Offered for Exchange	Behavior I Wanted	Why Different?
1				
2				
3				

Were there other opportunities for exchanging ideas, emotion, skills? What else could I have done to stimulate pupils to make them more secure in the dialogue or activity?

VII. APPLY THE CONCEPT TO YOUR OWN CLASSROOM

Identify three pupils in your class who are normally reticent, reluctant to participate in class discussions. Recall what you know about them. Think how their own experiences might be related to the ideas/skills you are trying to teach. Then think about your own life - how the ideas/skills you teach apply to your own experiences. Identify exchanges you could make so as to bring the pupils into a productive dialogue. Fill out the table below.

PUPIL NAME	PUPIL EXPERIENCES/ INTERESTS	TEACHER EXPERIENCES that are similar to those of pupil	EXCHANGES which might encourage productive dialogue
1			
2			
3			

CONCEPTUALIZING THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION *

Rationale

Many classroom teachers do not have a clear, conceptual grasp of the process of instruction that can allow them to consider a broad range of alternative instructional decisions. Preservice teacher education has tended to stress selected and specific relationships between teacher and students and to attend to the development of particular teaching skills. The process context within which those specific relationships and skills are exhibited and which gives instructional meaning to those specific and otherwise isolated events is usually not confronted in teacher education classes.

Learning how to teach by induction from specific behavioral skills and an understanding of certain specific teacher-pupil relationships is just one approach. Another alternative, a complementary deductive approach, is to first conceptualize the process of instruction by identifying its components. The teacher can then study and analyze discrete behaviors and events with the advantage of understanding how these behaviors and events fit into and influence the instructional process. The teacher's role as participant and decision-maker in instruction is put in perspective, and the points of potential intervention in instruction are likely to become more clear.

Instruction is an extremely complex process. It is a real challenge to prepare teachers who can analyze instructional situations, diagnose and interpret classroom behaviors, and alter instructional decisions accordingly. Teachers can be helped in developing a working concept of the process of instruction by seeing specimens or representations of instruction, analyzing them, and from that analysis constructing their own models of the instructional process. Valid representations of instructional situations on film can be analyzed and studied in detail to identify and classify the relevant attributes or characteristics of the instructional process. Relationships between categories of behaviors or events can be hypothesized and tested. The inferences drawn from the analytical viewing of the films can be stated as generalizations and schematized as the viewer's own conceptual model of the process of instruction. That model can then be tested for its ability to withstand variance by applying it to different instructional situations.

Objectives

The objectives of this module on conceptualizing the process of instruction are to enable teachers:

1. To identify factors that vary (variables) in instructional situations.
2. To classify these variables under at least three major categories.
3. To analyze the relationships among the component categories in terms of the specific variables subsumed by them.
4. To draw a simple model of instruction, incorporating at least three major components and indicating their interaction with one another.
5. To describe and analyze an instructional situation in terms of its components, the variables subsumed by those components, and the relationship among those variables.

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CONCEPTUALIZING THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION

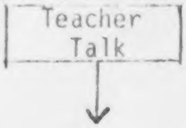
Model Building

By identifying the categories of the complex instructional situation, you can begin to grasp the concept of the entire process of instruction.

To aid in this conceptualization, a model or visual representation of the reality may be helpful. Model building is a step toward making and testing hypotheses concerning instruction, the forming of generalizations, and the development of theory.

Model building begins with the grouping and arranging of conceptual categories like those you have devised from sorting observations into groups. The arrangement of the category components and the indication of their relationships in the structure being built should facilitate the formulation of useful hypotheses and theories.

In the space below, draw a model of the teaching-learning process called instruction, using as structural components whatever major categories you think will account for all that goes on in that very complex process (you may use those headings developed by your group, the headings selected by the class, or you may devise new ones).

Place the names of the categories in boxes and show the structural relationship with solid directional lines (e.g., ).

VERBAL INTERACTION IN THE COGNITIVE DIMENSION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER VERBAL BEHAVIOR AND STUDENT RESPONSE*

Rationale

As a generalization one can say that teachers are expected to plan, control, evaluate, and modify instruction so that learning takes place. They are expected to make good instructional decisions both for the short range and the long. But the process and the context of instruction with which teachers deal are very complex. The classroom represents an integration of teaching and learning behaviors, and it is on the basis of perceptions of the kinds and quality of integration that the teacher makes instructional decisions. The teacher needs to be able to look at the total teaching-learning configuration in ways that help answer his or her questions about specific behaviors and aspects of the environment that influence what is happening in the classroom. A conceptual framework or model of instruction can help make contextual sense of specific variables in behavior or the environment and provide a guide for hypothesizing whether specific behaviors influence or are influenced by other variables in instruction.

A conceptual model that breaks down instruction into basic component parts makes it possible for a teacher to consider in a rational context the nature and function of sub-concepts in instruction. Such a framework permits the intelligent selection of behavioral and situational variables with which to work in making instructional decisions and modifications. It helps avoid the teacher's working with instructional concepts so broad in scope that interpretation is fruitless; it helps prevent the teacher's manipulating and interpreting discrete variables in a vacuum.

A model that includes Teacher, Students, Situation, and Outcomes, for example, as major components, suggests various categories and levels of sub-concepts under each of those components and some possible relationships between and among the sub-concepts. The category "Teacher" includes Teacher Behavior, which subsumes Teacher Verbal Behavior, which can be further delineated to include Teacher Questioning, which includes Asking Higher Order Questions, which includes Asking Analytical Questions. The category "Students" can be broken down into sub-concepts, e.g., Learner Characteristics and Student Verbal Behavior. Those concepts can be further described. Student Verbal Behavior, for instance, contains useful sub-concepts such as Student Questions and Student Responses and Student Responses can be additionally refined into Productive Responses and Conforming Responses. Still further, Productive Responses might be broken down into additional sub-concepts, e.g., Divergent Response. Depending on the level at which he chooses to work, the teacher may make and check hypotheses about relationships between very specific variables or a larger cluster of variables. He may, for instance, want to look generally at the relationship between classroom verbal interaction and affective learning outcomes or he may want to examine specifically the relationship between his acceptance of student ideas and feelings and the frequency of student response.

The hierarchical and relational structuring of concepts offered by an elaborated model of instruction allows a teacher to continue to see a comprehensive picture of the instructional process regardless of the specificity or expansiveness of the concepts with which he is immediately concerned. It affords him the opportunity to choose to move up or down or across the conceptual structure as his need to analyze and interpret instructional behaviors and situations changes.

An assumption underlying this module is that teachers have need to understand middle-level concepts and particularly those that deal with interaction between teacher and students. Concepts used in this unit are middle-level in terms of the hierarchy outlined above. They are Teacher Verbal Behavior and Student Response. Verbal Interaction in the Cognitive Dimension is also middle-level--not so broad as just Verbal Interaction and not so narrow as Memory Level Questions and Responses, for example.

Substantively these materials reflect the view that teachers are naturally and professionally motivated to find out more about the nature of classroom interaction in which their own behaviors play an influential part. Research studies of teaching indicate that the teacher's interest is in student involvement and that "the teacher's own measure of how well he is doing in the classroom is the minute-by-minute evidence of his students' involvement in the task at hand." Experienced teachers look for the attention, enthusiasm, and degrees of cognitive involvement of students during classroom interaction, and most teachers are aware that their verbal input acts as a mediating influence on student response. It has been hypothesized that the more "open" teacher, "functioning at the optimal level of perceptual awareness of the learner, is more likely to make an effective spontaneous decision in direct response to the learner--a decision which will expand opportunities for variations in the learner's productive behavior. Teacher interchanges with the learner will be differentiated and transaction-oriented, relating to the realities of the immediate interaction context..." Teacher behavior that is "closed" exhibits "limited awareness of the learner's frame of reference and his readiness to respond, and it restricts opportunities for variations in learner behavior." Essentially, teachers need an understanding of the nature of verbal interaction, particularly "open" behavior, so that they can actively participate in developing persons who can respond originally and inventively to a changing environment.

Different kinds of meanings are communicated in classroom verbal interaction. Some communications carry primarily cognitive meanings--those related to the substance of the subject matter or ways of knowing about it; some communications carry primarily affective meanings--those associated with feelings; and some communications emphasize social meanings and indicate where a person stands in relation to the group in terms of autonomy, authority, leadership or power. All three kinds of meaning can be communicated simultaneously and the meanings derived in one dimension often depend on meanings derived in the other two dimensions, i.e., the student derives cognitive, affective, and social meanings for himself from what a teacher says and does in the classroom. Therefore, the behavior of the teacher influences the nature of the student response. The student bases his response, or lack of it, on his perception of teacher behaviors. The relationship between teacher and student verbal behaviors is a critical focus for illustrating and analyzing openness in verbal interaction.

Interaction here is not used synonymously with the entire process of instruction, but refers to the interaction within the classroom that begins after objectives, antecedent conditions, and instructional alternatives are already given or selected. Interaction takes place before and during the crystalization of outcomes and is the in-process stage of instruction. In the context of this module, interaction refers to a specific phenomenon in which there is reciprocal teacher-student or student-student action that is observable.

To interpret levels of student cognitive operation and modes of teacher verbal behavior necessitates an observation system of some type.

For the purpose of this module, the matrix developed by Macdonald and Zaret will serve as the organizer for preparing us to look at teacher and pupil behaviors illustrative of verbal interaction in the cognitive dimension. This matrix allows one to analyze the relationship between the degree of openness in teacher verbal behavior and productive thinking on the part of the student. The framework of the matrix and pertinent verbal behavioral terms illustrating the four primary categories appear on the following page.

THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Classification of Verbal Behavior in the Classroom

OPENING

↑

	Teacher	Learner	
Transaction Oriented Decisions	Stimulating Supporting Clarifying Facilitating Elaborating Evaluating *Monitoring **Chairing Accepting	Discovering Exploring Experimenting Elaborating Qualifying Evaluating Synthesizing Explicating Deriving Implications Divergent association Counter-responding	Productive Behavior
Role-expectancy Oriented Decisions	Directing Judging (Verdicts) Reproving Rejecting Ignoring Probing Priming *Monitoring **Chairing Factual Dialogue (telling) Affirming	Guessing Confirming Acquiescing Following Parroting Counter responding (directing, judging, reproving, rejecting, defending) Reproducing facts Reasoning based on given or remembered data	Reproductive Behavior

↓

CLOSING

*Monitoring - calling on a student to respond; recognizing a volunteer response.

**Chairing - keeping a discussion going; no teacher talk.

Essential characteristics of the four main categories are:

Transaction-oriented decisions

1. reflect flexible teacher expectations.
2. accept and expand the learner's meanings.
3. promote divergent, evaluative, and choice-making learner behavior.

Role-expectancy-oriented decisions

1. reflect rigid teacher expectations.
2. reject or proscribe the learner's meanings.
3. promote convergent, non-evaluative learner behavior.

Productive learner behavior includes evaluative and divergent responses.

Reproductive behavior includes cognitive memory and convergent responses.

Objectives

The objectives of this module on verbal interaction are to help teachers;

1. Recognize the characteristics of verbal interaction in the cognitive dimension.
2. Identify a unit of analysis useful for interpreting relationships in verbal interaction.
3. Differentiate generally between teacher verbal behaviors that are transaction or task-oriented and those that are role-expectancy-oriented.
4. Differentiate generally between student responses that are productive and those that reproduce the teacher's behavior or conform to the teacher's expectations.
5. Hypothesize relationships between teacher verbal behaviors and student responses in interaction dealing with the cognitive domain.
6. Recognize and be able to analyze teacher openness as a variable in interaction.

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TRANSCRIPTS

CLASSROOM #1[*]

Segment One

(1) Teacher: You know I don't like to pick up after you.

(2) Student A: Yeah, we should have to, if we get something out, say we got some science materials out...

(3) Teacher: Now just a minute, Thos, I think you should run this, this discussion as far as room jobs and the room responsibility are concerned.

Segment Two

(4) Teacher: I can tell you right now, I'm not your nursemaid. I'm not going to pick up after you, but I'm not going to live in a pig pen, but I want a lot of junk in the room, but I want it organized. Now.

(5) Student A: Well, I think, say--say we...if I got some science material out and like if it was some chemicals and I got it on the desk, I shouldn't just leave it for the janitor to clean up. I should try to clean it up myself, so, because the janitor wouldn't have to go through so much work.

Segment Three

(6) Teacher: Bruce, what is your responsibility in the room right now?

(7) Student B: Well, I take care of the reading corner, and, um, David and John, they take care of other parts of it. I think David and John do a pretty good job... they...

(8) Teacher: What does taking care of the reading corner mean?

CLASSROOM #2 *

Segment One

(1) Teacher: What kinds of things can you think of, Candv, what one thing can you think of that sometimes makes a difference in the decision that you five make? Something you do.

(2) Student B: Well, we like, we decide on, like we, whenever like, sometimes we argue a lot what we are going to decide. Like one decides on something else and we just argue about it 'til we get the answer.

(3) Teacher: OK. Good.

(4) Student C: Well, when, say there's only two in the picture and then, "No, I think he would be better." And you know, and then if the rest of them came in and then they would cast a vote and it's uneven. Well, then one or the other would win.

(5) Teacher: OK. So it makes a difference how much you talk, you're saying, and how strongly you're arguing and exchanging the ideas?

(6) Student C: Yeah.

(7) Student D: Who thinks of the best things like that.

(8) Student A: Who expresses themselves the best.

(9) Teacher: OK. Good point. Who thinks of the things the first and the best. Thinks of the best ideas and expresses themself best.

Segment Two

(10) Teacher: Can you think of anything else that you do with one another that helps your decision?

(11) Student D: Ah, we, ah, we try to, if they try, we try to think together.

(12) Student A: We don't think what Mr. Sayre would like. We just think what, ah, what the room would like.

(13) Teacher: How do you...tell me a little bit about what you mean about trying to think together, Thos. When you say trying to think together--show me how; tell me how.

(14) Student A: Well, like independently without, ah, thinking, having someone else do the thinking for you.

(15) Teacher: OK. You mean alone without the teacher?

(16) Student A: Yeah, you can have, be able to think independently. Like you think something but you think, "Oh, no. Mr. Sayre would like this, so..." Some people might say, "OK." ah... "He's the student of the week," even though you don't think...he was.

(17) Teacher: OK. Good point. Before we lose this point, let's get this down on the board.

ORGANIZING FACTS
TO TEACH MEANINGFUL RELATIONSHIPS *

Rationale

The trend in the last decade to concept-oriented curriculum has underscored the passing of the ancient rite of "just teaching the facts." This new emphasis has served to increase teacher interest in what concepts and generalizations are worth teaching and how they should be taught. Teachers have accepted new ideas about what abstract knowledge to teach and why, but have found it more difficult to determine new ways to teach that knowledge. Acceptance of the view that the student must create knowledge from his own experiences, including school, requires the teacher to do more than give the facts, define the terms, or lay out the accumulated wisdom of a subject field. Teachers must help students build concepts from attributes they associate with classes of things, events, or ideas. They need to help students understand relationships among concepts in order to create a new cognitive product--the generalization--and to build more abstract knowledge like constructs and theories. Finally, students need a chance to demonstrate and test their new knowledge,

The purpose of this module is to give teachers an idea of the characteristics and the feel of a teaching strategy that promotes learning and leads to the student creating knowledge for himself. This unit is not intended to show a model of good or bad teaching. Rather, it provides an opportunity for teachers to identify and relate representative attributes of a teaching strategy based on the assumptions that: 1) there must be interaction between content offered by the teacher and a student's mental process, and 2) the student must be given a chance to form and try out his new cognitive products.

The concept examined in this unit is phrased in a descriptive way--"organizing facts to teach meaningful relationships." It might have been called "concept teaching" or "a strategy for teaching for concept attainment." The choice of words for the concept as expressed in the title was an effort to make the unit broadly applicable to organizing cognitive input at various levels.

A Definition

This unit focuses on teacher verbal behaviors indicative of a particular teaching strategy, but those behaviors are interpreted in terms of how students learn. If it is assumed that learning results from an interaction between content and student mental processes, the teacher must present substantive content in a way that is most likely to encourage and facilitate student mental activity. A concept teaching strategy organizes facts and presents them in a sequence that facilitates the attainment of the concept by the learner. Research indicates that students recognize the difference between teaching that helps them acquire new and useful meanings and teaching that fosters merely absorption of unorganized facts. It is not surprising that students prefer the kind of teaching that encourages their exploration of the realm of ideas.

Objectives

The objectives of this unit on organizing facts are to help teachers:

1. Understand the composition of a strategy which enables a teacher to exert considerable control over student learning of concepts, generalizations, and higher order knowledge.
2. Identify specific teacher verbal behaviors that are characteristic of a strategy for teaching concept attainment.
3. Identify specific student verbal behaviors that are indicative of acquisition of new knowledge structures (concepts, generalizations).

4. Analyze a teaching episode in terms of teacher verbal behaviors that indicate the use of a strategy that provides for sequencing, for higher order thinking from students, and for application of new knowledge.

CONCEPT TEACHING *

Concept teaching is that teacher strategy which leads a student to perform sequentially covert mental operations that are necessary for the development of cognitive skills. Concept teaching strategy promotes higher level thinking; it is a strategy that manages concept learning.

To understand concept teaching involves, first, an understanding of concept learning. The following definitions relate to concept learning and will give you an idea of what it entails.

Concept:	"A generalized body of attributes associated with the symbol for a class of things, events, or ideas."[1] "An inference based upon the notation of recurrence in the context of variance which enables one to order and organize experience."[2] "The concept is basically the rule for grouping."[3]
Conceptualize:	"To note the recurrence of patterns, to perceive a rule for grouping."[4]
Concept Attainment:	"The process of identifying the attributes that characterize a particular category."[5]
Concept Learning:	"Learning to make a common response to a set of stimuli; that is to say, a group of stimuli is assigned to a single response category."[6]

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[1] Marlin L. Tanck, "Teaching Concepts, Generalizations, and Constructs," Social Studies Curriculum Development, 39th Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D.C., 1969), p. 101.

[2] James C. Tyson and Mary Ann Carroll, Conceptual Tools for Teaching in Secondary Schools (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970), p. 25.

[3] Jerome S. Bruner, Jacqueline T. Goodnow, and George Austin, A Study of Thinking (New York: Science Editions, Inc., 1965), p. 45.

[4] Tyson and Carroll, Conceptual Tools, p. 27.

[5] Robert M.W. Travers, Essentials of Learning (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967), p. 136.

[6] Robert Glaser, "Concept Learning and Concept Teaching," in Learning Research and School Subjects, edited by Robert M. Gagne and William J. Gephart (Itasca, Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Tus., 1968), p.3.

TEACHING BEHAVIORS CHARACTERISTIC OF CONCEPT TEACHING

To achieve student concept attainment involves the teacher's use of concept teaching strategies. Below is a list of teacher behaviors characteristic of concept teaching.

A teacher can exert control over concept learning:[1]

1. By reducing the number of irrelevant attributes.
2. By improving the identifiability of the relevant attributes.
3. By providing sufficient time for viewing material after feedback is given.
4. By facilitating the coding of information.
5. By arranging for concepts to be learned in an order consistent with their structure.

Verbal behaviors necessary for concept teaching include:[2]

1. The teacher should present or formulate with the students a concise definition of the category.
2. The teacher should present a group of examples of the category.
3. The teacher should indicate a contrast between examples and non-examples of the category.
4. The teacher should request students to give examples of the category.
5. The teacher should indicate the accuracy or inaccuracy of the student response.
6. The teacher should request students to discriminate between examples and non-examples of the category.
7. The teacher should give examples of the relationships between the category and some significant human activity, problem, or question.

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[1] Robert M.W. Travers, Essentials of Learning (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967), pp. 138-42.

[2] James C. Tyson and Mary Ann Carroll, Conceptual Tools for Teaching in Secondary Schools (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970), pp. 63-66.

VERBAL INDICATORS OF CONCEPT TEACHING

A WAY OF ORGANIZING FACTS TO TEACH MEANINGFUL RELATIONSHIPS

From the lists of teacher behaviors characteristic of concept teaching and related literature, the following verbal indicators of concept teaching have been extracted.

The teacher helps the students:

1. To reduce the irrelevant attributes,
   - a. The teacher presents the students with a definition of the concept.
   - b. The teacher tells the students the image of a given concept.
   - c. The teacher gives the students the common characteristics of a group of unique events.
2. To identify, differentiate, and group the relevant attributes,
   - a. The teacher gets students to brainstorm.
   - b. The teacher asks students to enumerate the list of relevant attributes.
   - c. The teacher asks students to identify common properties or to explain why things go together.
   - d. The teacher asks students to label and categorize.
3. To improve the identifiability of the relevant attributes,
   - a. The teacher makes identification of attributes easier through use of pictures, maps, graphs, or other visual aids.
   - b. The teacher helps students code visual information verbally.
4. To compare and contrast recurring instances of the concept in varied situations,
   - a. The peacher provides examples of the category.
   - b. The teacher provides positive and negative instances.
   - c. The teacher provides sufficient time for viewing materials after feedback is given.
5. To build and expand the concept,
   - a. The teacher asks students to identify relationships.
   - b. The teacher asks students to explain, to give a variety of occurrences, and to derive implications.
6. To verify the significance and utility of the concept,
   - a. The teacher asks students to apply the concept or principle to an unfamiliar situation.
   - b. The teacher asks students to predict from known conditions.

VERBAL INDICATORS: NON-INSTANCES OF CONCEPT TEACHING

Non-Instances of Concept Teaching is a teacher verbal behavior that reflects the absence of a systematic and purposeful strategy designed to help students attack cognitive tasks and attain cognitive skills. The following is a list of Verbal Indicators that are Non-Instances of Concept Teaching:

1. The teacher refers generally to an ill-defined topic area; does not give an image of a definable concept.
2. The teacher exhorts students to know rather than giving the outline of a cognitive task to be learned.
3. The attributes remain irrelevant and no attempt is made to meaningfully reduce, differentiate, or group the attributes.
4. The teacher emphasizes memory; the accent is on facts, not concept development.
5. Visual aids are used to little advantage; questions asked on the basis of those aids little improve the identifiability of attributes.
6. Feedback is irrelevant and insufficient time for review and assimilation is given after feedback.
7. The teacher does little to facilitate the coding of information; in fact, the teacher codes to irrelevancies, in this case, cities to dots and rivers to lines on a map.
8. The teacher's strategy suggests no order and no sense.
9. The teacher's use of positive and negative examples is random and fails to illuminate specific attributes, their relationships or their predictive properties.
10. The criteria for student performance are vague and illogical, if existent.

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ORGANIZING FACTS TO TEACH MEANINGFUL RELATIONSHIPS*

Verbal Indicators	Transcript
	Tchr: The last time we were talking about democracy it seemed to me we stressed the U.S. Senators and Representatives and the whole structure of the national government so much that you people were coming away with the idea that the only kind of democracy was representative democracy.
(1)	And we were trying at the end of the period last time to think of another kind of democracy, still democracy, still government by the people in the same way you had defined representative democracy but in a slightly different form.
(2)	Have you had a chance to think in what other form, in what other way, people make decisions all together about rules and laws that effect them and what that might be called? Anybody have any ideas?
	Stds: (No response.)
(3)	Tchr: How about taking a look at the dictionary definition of democracy? Let's take a look at that and see if it defines the term democracy only as representative democracy. Terri, you want to be our lexicographer?
	Terri: "Government by the people, ruled by the majority, a form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly. . . . A form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them indirectly through a system of representatives and delegated authority in which the people choose their officials and representatives in periodically held free elections.'

Verbal Indicators	Transcript
(4)	Tchr: OK, who heard two different kinds of democracy in there? Did you hear it? Debbie?
	Debbie: There's the indirect democracy when we have the representatives and then the direct democracy when we do the deciding ourselves.
(5)	Tchr: Good. Now can you give an example, not taken from the dictionary or from the U.S. government at the national level which is representative, can you give me an example of the exercise of democratic power directly by the people, or by any group of people? (Debbie shakes her head.) Who can help her out? Pat, do you have an idea?
	Pat: You mean, people don't agree on something that they do?
(6)	Tchr: Well, now wait a second. Let's see if we understand the same thing by direct democracy. Debbie, how did you understand the meaning of direct democracy?
	Debbie: When we ourselves decide things and not have people representing and deciding for us.
(7)	Tchr: Right. That's what it said, didn't it, Terri? (Terri nods.) OK, but give a specific example that you can think of. Even from your life here at school. OK, Jim.
	Jim: Like when you elect a president from the class.
(8)	Tchr: OK, go through the steps so we are sure it's direct and not representative democracy. What would have to happen?
	Jim: Well, ah, you nominate somebody and then you vote on it, and then the majority decides.
(9)	Tchr: Who's the "you"? When you say "you" vote on it, who are you talking about?

Verbal Indicators	Transcript	
	Jim:	The people in the class.
(10)	Tchr:	Everybody in the class? What do the rest of you think? Do you agree?
	Stds:	(All agree.)
(11)	Tchr:	OK, let's have another example. . . of direct democracy. Think of something, Gene.
	Gene:	Well, like for the captain of the team or something.
(12)	Tchr:	OK, who would have to vote?
	Gene:	Well, the players.
(13)	Tchr:	All of them?
	Gene:	Yes.
(14)	Tchr:	Now, usually in a democracy, because it means a form of government, usually we are thinking of establishing rules rather than just - say - electing a captain. Could we change your example and ask, if you lay down a new rule for your football team, then all of the players would vote on it and that would be direct democracy?
	Gene:	OK.
(15)	Tchr:	Let me give you an example and you tell me whether it's representative democracy or direct democracy. Let's see - OK, Let's say that the City Council decided that they wanted to fluoridate the water system - that is, put fluoride in it and presumably cut down on cavities in teeth. That issue has to go to the vote of all the people in the city. Is that an example of representative democracy or direct democracy?

Verbal Indicators	Transcript
	Chuck: Both.
(16)	Tchr: In what way?
	Chuck: The representative part is the Council getting something for the people to vote on. You know, they're seeing if the people want something they think they might want.
(17)	Tchr: OK. Chuck has a very important idea there. He's shown how in that particular issue there is the idea, representative democracy, because we elected the councilmen, but they can't make the decision about the water supply. They are turning it over to everybody to vote on, a use of direct democracy. Do you have any idea why, in the case of putting something in the water supply, everybody would be asked to vote on it and use direct democracy? Amy?
	Amy: Well, because everybody would be affected and influenced by it. Everybody is going to be drinking the water, so they should have some say over what the drinking water is going to be like.
(18)	Tchr: An extremely important point. She said "because everybody is going to be influenced by it". That tells us something more about direct democracy.

* * * * *

SUPPLEMENT E

CLOSING BEHAVIOR
GROUP PROCESSES

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SESSION V

Overview

Session V begins with the film, "Closing Behavior". Classroom teachers can socialize their students into a non-participant or participant mode of behavior through the use of closing behavior. It becomes evident in the film that unsupported verbal attempts forces the student to become dependent on the teacher.

The section, "Group Process" contains four subtopics that consider various roles of group members. The subtopic, "Anti Group Roles" illustrates negative behaviors found in group activities that may destroy morale or inhibit achievement. Another subtopic, "Task Roles" leads the way to successful problem solving or accomplishing group goals. "Unifying Roles", the third subtopic, states the importance of group facilitators who help build and maintain group unity. The final subtopic, "Stages of Group Growth", familiarizes one with the four phases of group growth: initial communication, conflict which blocks group achievement, resolution of the conflict, and increased productivity.

Directions

This session contains two sections entitled, "Closing Behavior" and "Group Process." "Group Process" contains four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may test your learning comprehension by completing them individually or in small groups. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Closing Behavior *

1. Read and study the explanation and definition of "Closing Behavior."
2. From past experiences provide the needed information for the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. From examples in the film, complete the Post-Viewing Activities.
5. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing Activities with the program facilitator.
6. Read and study the subtopic, "More About Closing Behavior".
7. Identify the closing behavior you used in the taped episode of your class for the exercises in the subtopic "Now Try it for Yourself".
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Group Process *

A. Anti-Group Roles

1. Read and study "Anti-Group Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. View the film, "Anti-Group Roles".
3. Discuss "Anti-Group Roles" with the group.

B. Task Roles

1. Read and study "Task Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. Complete the transcript "Group Process: Task Roles".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Unifying Roles

1. Read and study "Unifying Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. Provide the necessary information for the transcript, "Group Process: Unifying Roles".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

D. Stages of Group Growth

1. Read and study "Stages of Group Growth - Description of the Concept".
2. View the film, "Stages of Group Growth".
3. Discuss "Stages of Group Growth" with the group.

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* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

CLOSING BEHAVIOR*

CLOSING BEHAVIOR

The responses which teachers make to pupil statements have an important impact on pupil thinking.

Pupil thinking is enhanced when the child is encouraged to clarify and elaborate his own ideas. Children practice and develop thinking skills when they are given the opportunity to manipulate ideas verbally.

In order to sustain and extend pupil thinking, the teacher must listen to what the pupils say and show genuine interest in pupil efforts to work through ideas. In doing so, the teacher lays the groundwork for a more mature, responsible and productive relationship with pupils.

Language and thinking abilities are developed through language use. The teacher who consistently encourages pupil use of language will facilitate growing language and thinking skills.

The responses a teacher uses to stimulate pupils to express ideas also contribute to the development of positive attitudes toward self and others.

Teacher responses which consistently terminate pupil opportunities to express ideas inhibit development of language and thinking skills. Such responses also contribute to the development of negative attitudes toward self, disaffection from the teacher and withdrawal.

CLOSING BEHAVIOR: Behavior through which one terminates the opportunities of another to express his ideas, emotions, and skills.

I. PRE-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

Think about the behaviors of teachers and pupils in the classroom. Remember several instances in which a teacher either knowingly or unknowingly terminated pupil opportunities to talk or act. List some OBSERVABLE behaviors through which teachers close out pupils.

II. NOW VIEW THE FILM: CLOSING BEHAVIOR

III. POST-VIEWING ACTIVITIES

The following activities will help you become more sensitive to the occurrence of closing behavior. You will become skilled in recognizing closing behavior and more thoughtful about its use.

Recall the examples in the film. In the table below list: a) those closing behaviors which were most noticeable; b) those which you really had to look for.

Closing Behavior Observed in Film

	A	B	
+ -	MOST OBVIOUS	LESS OBVIOUS	+ -

Put a plus (+) by those closing behaviors which seemed to be necessary to "proper" teaching procedure. Put a minus(-) by those which seemed likely to inhibit pupil development. Examine your reasons for judgement.

List some circumstances where closing behavior is appropriate for a teacher to use. List some where inappropriate and potentially damaging to pupils.

Appropriate	Inappropriate
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

IV. MORE ABOUT CLOSING BEHAVIOR

The process of "talking things over" with another person enables us to:

a) organize our thinking by putting our thoughts into stated form;
b) gain feedback about the accuracy of our ideas and their potential meaningfulness for others;
c) gather additional information and ideas which we can use to further develop our thoughts;
d) obtain feedback through which we evaluate self-worth;
e) transact social relationships that are mutually satisfying.

The teacher may terminate several opportunities for a pupil to express himself without apparent harm. However, when the teacher's responses to a pupil assume a pattern of closing behavior, he becomes an active deterrent to the pupil's social, emotional and intellectual development.

The expression of thoughts in language allows us to give our thinking shape and direction. If we do not talk or write about what we are thinking, our thoughts may remain muddled and indecisive. When we express our ideas to one another, we must make them clear so that our meaning is understandable both to ourselves and others.

Another person's response to our ideas is, in effect, a "critique" of those ideas. It gives us an opportunity to recheck our thinking for possible errors or lack of clarity. In addition, the feedback provided by another person's reaction to our words may contain additional information which will help us further develop both our ideas and abilities to express them clearly.

Many teachers jump from one pupil to another in classroom discussion. They fear that if the class isn't kept under control it will become unmanageable. The "jumping around" is explained as a means to "keep everyone involved." The result of this jumping around is that each individual pupil is asked only to submit a fact or idea, rarely to develop it. Hence, each pupil is "closed out" from the development of ideas and reduced to the role of supplying information which the teacher will then develop through further instruction or by asking for another pupil's comment. This interruption breaks off the child's flow of talk, and in many cases his thinking is cut off. Eventually this may lead to frustration, dependence and tuning out.

Teachers who continually employ a pattern of closing behaviors to maintain a "fast pace" may well be socializing pupils into a non-participation mode of behavior. Pupils may become accustomed to talking only long enough to elicit the closure response from the teacher. In this way they have shielded themselves from actually embarking on a thinking task only to be put down because they didn't get to the right answer as quickly as the teacher wanted it. If such situations occur often, they "condition" the learner to behave accordingly. If a child's verbal attempts are regularly unsupported by the teacher, his thinking, rather than becoming independent, becomes dependent on the teacher. He waits for teacher responses to signal when to talk and how much to think, Instead of gaining self-confidence in his own mental abilities, the child begins to believe that he really can't figure out things by himself.

A crucial element in a good teaching strategy is a response pattern which gives each child adequate opportunity to clearly express his thoughts.

How many kinds of teacher responses will do this?

V. NOW TRY IT FOR YOURSELF!

Make a ten to fifteen minute audiotape recording of one of your class discussions(large or small group). Play back the tape. See if you can identify the instances of closing behavior in your own teaching. Don't forget to complete Column D for each inappropriate Closure you find.

Closing Behavior

Teacher Behavior	Why Teacher Closed	Closure Appropriate Yes No	If No, What Could Have Been Done
A	B	C	D

What could you do to avoid over-use of closing behavior?

ANTI-GROUP ROLES
Description of the Concept[*]

The concept Anti-Group Roles consists of behaviors that can hinder the group by destroying morale or blocking achievement of the goals. The five anti-group behaviors which we have illustrated are:

A. Aggressing
B. Blocking
C. Attention-seeking
D. Dominating
E. Non-cooperating

It is important to distinguish anger and resistance which are productive from that which tears a group down. Not all negative behaviors are anti-group. A group member may constructively critize another's behavior or idea, or correctly persist in opposing a plan of action that could lead the group to failure. Or members may find that non-cooperating is the only reasonable tactic for dealing with an oppressive leader. Look carefully at the context in which the behavior occurs in order to judge whether the behavior is truly anti-group. In fact, it is quite possible that you will disagree with some of the interpretations of behavior that are provided in the Protocol film. Because of our decision to show brief examples, this is to be expected.

A. Aggressing: expressing unconstructive disapproval of members' values or ideas or actions

Examples: a. Verbal: "You don't know what you're talking about. You never do and I bet you never will."
Non-verbal: scowling
b. Verbal: no words
Non-verbal: hits other

Commentary: The aggressing member launches an attack. However, the fact that he is in opposition to an issue or to a group member does not automatically make his action anti-group. His manner of opposing is crucial: if he tries to make persons in the group feel worthless, if he addresses them sarcastically, if he heckles or taunts, if he tries to knock them down, or tries to get others to do any of these things, then he is aggressing. Aggressing persons can draw on a whole range of techniques or choose the same style of attack each time. Aggressing can be quite obvious, noisy and prolonged, or very sly and swiftly timed. Some persons adopt aggressing as a role; others may aggress in one situation and not another.

Both to change aggressing behavior and to help students learn to protect themselves from it takes time, patience and the presence of positive student and teacher models.

Once a teacher diagnoses that aggressing action is disturbing a group, he may decide to do nothing at all and let the group take care of itself, if he feels it is capable of doing so, or he may move in firmly and decisively to protect the persons under attack. You might choose the latter approach if you feel the group is not clear that the attack is unfair, or the aggressing member does not know that there are alternative ways to deal with or voice his feelings.

Depending upon the vulnerability of the students involved, you may want to work separately with some of the individuals concerned. For example, if the aggressing student appears to be acting out of strains that did not originate in the group, he may need special attention. Or if the persons attacked begin to withdraw from group activities, they may require special support.

B. Blocking: resisting ideas or suggestions in a stubborn, unreasonable way

Examples:
- a. Verbal: "No, no, no, no....I don't want to discuss the ways in which we can improve this group, and I won't."
  - Non-verbal: set jaw
- b. Verbal: no words
  - Non-verbal: holding on to the treasury box with all her might, Josephine refuses to let the club members see how much money has been collected.

Commentary: The blocker categorically refuses to listen to other people's reasons. He wants to do things his way, or not at all. He is a drain on the group's energy. He may block swiftly and deftly with one strong "NO" or he may persist at his blocking over a long period of time.

Role-playing may be a particularly good technique for helping both the group member who takes blocking as a role and the members who have been faced with this behavior. Trying to reason with a blocker may have little positive effect. Through role-playing he might both become aware of the effect he is having on the group and find a safe outlet for the blocking energy. Role-playing also can add a little humor and lightness.

C. Attention-seeking: calling unusual amounts of attention to oneself, by boasting, self-criticism, or other means

Examples:
- a. Verbal: "Everybody here knows that I'm the one you need the most...right?"
  Non-verbal: smug posture
- b. Verbal: no words
  Non-verbal: Carla nudges the visitor and smiles at him every few minutes.

Commentary: The attention-seeking member wants to disproportionate amount of other group members' approval and/or time. He wants praise and reinforcement for work that is quite usual or is not relevant to the task. or for work he did not even do. Perhaps he wants special recognition for aspects of himself--his past experience, his present problems--that are not of immediate interest to the group. Perhaps he simply engages in behavior which makes him the focal point of the group's attention by scraping his chair, removing his coat or tapping his pencil. Many many behaviors can be called attention-seeking.

In observing the student who has adopted attention-seeking as a role you may feel that he is not getting enough attention from other sources--his home, his friends, you. Just recognizing this may give you a chance to find other means of support for the student and take the strain off the group.

There are other possibilities. The group may be content to supply his attention need, or they may be clearly letting him know that he is imposing on them, or they may be asking him for some special attention in exchange for his demands.

If the group does make the attention-seeking student feel very rejected, you, perhaps together with others, (counselor, other teachers, adults from the community) may want to find ways to help him handle his feelings. This type of support could in itself lead to changes in his attention-seeking behavior.

D. Dominating: trying to boss or bully group members

Examples: a. Verbal: "Straighten up...Get over there...Don't move so slowly...now."

Non-verbal: callous, tense

b. Verbal: "This group is more mine than yours...I've been in it longer and I know more."

Non-verbal: cold, superior

Commentary: The dominating member tries to take over. He may not even be the appointed leader. He may just think he ought to be in command.

If he is the leader and acts in a dominating fashion, his actions may be too easily accepted by the group. If the group is not able to defend itself against a member who has taken the role of dominator, and has not asked you to intervene, you have a difficult decision. Should you move in to protect the group? Should you let the group remain on its own, despite the pain being caused? The decision you make will probably depend both on your outlook in regard to the amount of teacher intervention of which you generally approve and your judgement of the group's tolerance for conflict. You own awareness of conflict as a stage that many groups endure may help you in your decision.

If you decide to intervene, you might simply ask the group to rotate the leadership position. In experiencing non-dominating leadership from other members, the group may begin to reject the unfair treatment of the dominator. With older students, or students who have had a lot of experience in groups, you may wish to guide them in some discussions of group process and roles. As they move into evaluating their own group and the roles they play, they will be more able to recognize and deal with the dominator.

E. Non-cooperating: not participating in the group's activity by use of nonchalance, by playing around, or by other means

Examples:

a. Verbal: "Hey John, let's split. They can do the work."
   Non-verbal: indifference

b. Verbal: silence
   Non-verbal: sleeping

Commentary: The non-cooperating member has withdrawn from the action, either in mind or body. It is important, and perhaps difficult to distinguish between a lack of involvement that may be either real boredom or a constructive "strike", and that which is determinedly destructive. You will need to look carefully at the context in which the behavior occurs.

Some students who take non-cooperating as a role may have had a number of negative experiences in groups in school, or may have never functioned in a "real" group--one in which the students interacted with one another; or they may never have been in any one group long enough to learn to expect the tensions that naturally occur. You can help prevent this by encouraging groups in the classroom to stay together as long as they want to and can.

TASK ROLES
Description of the Concept*

The concept Task Roles consists of behaviors engaged in by group members for the purpose of solving the problem or accomplishing the work which the group has undertaken. Six task oriented behaviors which can occur are:

A. Initiating
B. Information seeking
C. Information giving
D. Opinion giving
E. Orienting
F. Coordinating

These are not the only behaviors that the concept of Task Roles refers to, but these are ones which occur often. Here are their definitions:

A. Initiating: offering new ideas relating to the group's task

Examples: a. "Here's the way we could solve the fund-raising problem. Let's ..."

b. "I think it would go faster if we broke up into teams of three and then came back to discuss each team's recommendations."

Commentary: The important cue to the behavior is the suggesting of something new...a new approach, a solution not yet discussed. Although initiation is a behavior often assumed by leaders, it would be incorrect to assume that only leaders initiate. This behavior and the other task behaviors could be enacted by any group member.

By noting which students tend to initiate, you may be able to identify and reinforce potential leaders. For example, you may find that students who initiate only occasionally in one group might be strong initiators in another group. By encouraging such students to take opportunities to lead you can help them strengthen their confidence. You might accomplish this by having the position of leader be a rotating one or by building an environment in which students feel free to form groups on a spontaneous basis.

B. Information Seeking: requesting facts and/or opinions relating to the group's concern

Examples: a. "What would it cost to feed 50 men at our team's annual pancake jamboree?"

b. "Do you think the protest march will help change anyone's mind?"

Commentary: The speaker reveals that he is information seeking when he is hunting for knowledge in the form of facts or opinions.

The lack of information-seeking behavior may indicate extreme clarity in task assignments or lack of motivation on the part of group members; or you may judge that a low frequency of information seeking is due to the nature of the task--it may not inspire inquiry; or perhaps it's the result of poor interactive skills (the students may not be accustomed to questioning); or it may be the result of the personal tendencies of the members--(one or two well-informed members may be intimidating less confident contributors).

You may have observed that some group members spend too much energy on information seeking. It seems as if almost all their contributions end in a question mark. Though information seeking is a worthy activity, it nevertheless can be a relatively low risk behavior in the group setting. When you become aware that a student specializes solely in information seeking, you may want to try one of these strategies, depending upon the age, personality, and experience of the student. You might 1) suggest other contributions he could make; 2) introduce him to other students who have the same tendency (if they work together, they may naturally start exercising other task behaviors); 3) ask the student to lead a group in a task in which he is already well-informed (in leading, he will be more likely to use a range of task relevant behaviors).

C. Information Giving: contributing facts relating to the group's concern

Examples: a. "I checked with the administration; the cost of renting the auditorium is more than this group can afford."

b. "How do I know the dessert we've planned is Turkish? I spent seven years in Istanbul."

Commentary: The information-giving member draws both upon outside sources and his own experience when he brings factual data to the group. Information giving is especially essential in classroom groups, where the emphasis is often on problem-solving and acquisition of skills. Of course, it's a frequent teaching behavior in the context of both small and large groups.

When you see a group has enthusiastic members who are involved in a task they like, yet their progress is slow, you might take note of their information-giving behavior. Perhaps none of the members have had sufficient experience in the topic at hand. In this case, you may want to participate in the group initially as an information giver, or you may wish to guide the group to an awareness of their need for information.

Another explanation for low frequency information-giving may be the reluctance of some students to reveal what they know, since appearing to be "too smart" may be taboo. If you can spot specific students who are setting this norm, you might consider looking for ways to help them become more at ease with their own information giving.

D. Opinion Giving: stating one's own belief or attitude relevant to the group's concern

Examples:
- a. "I don't believe in what we're doing. I feel we're on the wrong track."
- b. "I think you've got wrong information but I can't prove it."

Commentary: The opinion-giving member expresses his feelings, his beliefs, his intuitions. Protocol project staff observed a lack of opinion giving in the classrooms they visited, yet in many groups outside the school opinions account for a large percentage of the task behavior. A group might appear to be functioning quite productively without opinion-giving behavior, but on second thought--are these students afraid to trust their own instincts? Do they feel they always have to cite authoritative sources? Are they afraid to risk revealing their own stand since it might be seen as irrelevant, or unprovable? Though it may be difficult to substantiate, intuition is based on knowledge and experience. It can sometimes lead to more effective task accomplishment than an apparently logical task. As a group member, you may sometimes want to express your personal hunches or provide support for opinion-giving by other members. Obviously, the other extreme, too much opinion-giving, might be just as harmful to group productivity.

E. Orienting: defining the group's position or calling attention to its stated goals

Examples: a. "In order to get our overall work done we better put most of our energy and time into this idea.

b. "Remember, that's not the strategy we originally decided to use in tackling this project."

Commentary: The orienting member reminds the group to remain on course or steers it back when it loses sight of its goal or its plan for achieving that goal.

Like initiating, orienting often occurs as a leadership function but can be and is performed by other members. As a teacher, if you take this role too often you may prevent a group from learning to operate in an autonomous manner. Persons who are used to orienting may become overly sensitive to its absence. Actually, it can be temporarily beneficial for a group to suffer from the lack of orienting statements. In failing to meet an obligation or in deviating too far from its goals, the group will have an opportunity to learn from its own mistakes. In the process of recovering a sense of direction, one or two members may move naturally into the role of orienter, or from time to time different members may orient the group to the part of the task in which they feel capable or responsible.

F. Coordinating: pulling together ideas and efforts relating to the group's concern

Examples: a. "I hear several different suggestions. I think the first and the third can be combined, and the rest tabled."

b. "I would like to state the plan we have developed so far; it seems that Tom and Vera are willing to do the research and the rest will help write the report."

Commentary: Coordinating involves drawing together diverse aspects of the group's work, by pointing out relationships or suggesting a way to divide the labor. Coordinating is not a simple skill; it requires both an ability to think in an organized manner and a sensitivity to the capabilities and wishes of the members. Practice is important. By recognizing the complexity of coordinating behavior and the need for experience, you might help groups in a number of ways: 1) Encourage groups to discuss controversial topics. This will provide practice in dealing with diverse opinions. 2) Guide groups in learning some specific techniques for problem-solving. 3) Introduce groups to a self-evaluation approach. Here are some of the questions they could ask themselves: Can we survive without a coordinator? Can we have too many coordinators? Was an unclear interpretation of events offered by the coordinator?

TRANSCRIPT

GROUP PROCESS: TASK ROLES*

Instructions:

There are several student behaviors engaged in by group members for the purpose of solving the problem or accomplishing the work which the group has undertaken. Six of these task oriented behaviors are:

1. Initiating -- offering new ideas relating to the group's task.
2. Information Seeking -- requesting facts and/or opinions relating to the group's concern.
3. Information Giving -- contributing facts relating to the group's concern.
4. Opinion Giving -- stating one's own belief or attitude relevant to the group's concern.
5. Orienting -- defining the group's position or calling attention to its stated goals.
6. Coordinating -- pulling together ideas and efforts relating to the group's concern.

The following is a transcript taken from a classroom situation. Throughout the transcript you will find certain student remarks are in parentheses. Read the transcript and identify the Task Role of the remarks in parentheses by writing the appropriate behavior to the left of the remark.

TASK ROLES

TASK ROLE

TRANSCRIPT

--Are there any other modes of communication that we can explore?

(1) (No one has yet perceived the need strong enough to do a newspaper.)

--Make a list in other words--Make a list of three or four or five things, as many as you think appropriate.

(2) (--I think we should just have a play--the moral, like books...)

--Yeah, a play.

(3) (--Make them like gifts like, and a guy--someone like me or Jeff or Mark--Someone two guys come in and like try to steal books and they run off with them and someone--a police guy like Mark would come and catch us and...)

(4) (--Take out the fish, take out the water, take out the rocks, and then take it apart, and then

TASK ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	carry the part to the other room, put it together, then put in the rocks, put in the water and put in the fish.)
(5)	(--When have been the times that we have been most together? Do you remember? Last year?)
(6)	(--How do you know that they're called that?)
	--I don't know. I just heard it before.
(7)	(--Well, what do they do?)
	--I guess make the bean grow.
	--Yeah.
(8)	(--How can we figure out what makes it grow?)
(9)	(--How does it make the bean grow?)
	--Because...
	--That's what we're trying to find out.
	--The first thing we asked was why should you evaluate teachers, and you haven't really said

TASK ROLE | TRANSCRIPT

(10) anything. (What are you going to do with these
evaluations? Just say, here's your evaluation?
You stink, or you are really great. What
difference should your evaluation make in that
teacher's life and in the kid's life?)

(11) (--Treeschool, uh, there's a school in Menlo Park,
uh, it's another free school and they have a-
I just saw it for the first time two nights ago--
they print on ditto paper this little newspaper,
it's this big by this big.
--It's a little book.
--And it's just all these little teeny pages and
it's poetry and it's also, you know, what
people are doing and everyone has their page.)

--Then you can plant a bean in plain water.
(12) (--No, because it needs the ground.

TASK ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	No you can't because it needs soil and light to go along with water. If you have just water then it won't grow.)
	--Where do students fit into revolution?
	--Where do students (pause) fit into the revolution?
	--Yes.
(13)	(--Students are--a revolution is a revolution of consciousness, too. Students are people who are developing consciousness, just as all people are, but in particular, that's kind of like their role, as a person is developing in, you know, helping in developing consciousness, that's like part of the reason the SMC are on campus.

TASK ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	--We could but we don't
(14)	(--I have some feeling that I'm working with other people at the school. I don't say that I'm--we're all doing the--we're all in the same school. I feel that, you know?)
(15)	(--You can't walk on--walk on sponges --Well, you know that you just might can. It might be a little hard, but you still--you'll get used to it. Like you got now. If you was watching--washing--walking on sponges when you were first born you would be used to it and if you walked on ground it would be a little harder. --If this earth was just sponges then nobody could live on it. Because if you think about it... --People can grow in sponges though, and there would be enough oxygen. --No, because..)
(16)	(--Like some kids can be kicked out of school because

TASK ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	none of the teachers like the kids, you know, he's hard to put up with and all this. I think it should go the same way with teachers.)
	--We'd see a few people over the summer but maybe we need something during the week to get the people together.
(17)	(--What--we're still talking in the context of standing face-to-face to somebody and saying, "Hey, look, here's what I'm into." Are there other modes of communication that we can explore?)
	--Factory made sponges are the best kind.
	--Not really.
	--Yes they are.
(18)	(--Well, we're not talking about factory made sponges. We're talking about how--how beans grow in certain

TASK ROLE | TRANSCRIPT

substances and things.)

--Oh I see.

--When you grow up you'll just learn like that but you'll only be stealing bigger things and then you'll get in jail for it.

(19) (--I know, but the problem, what I'm throwing in your laps right now is what can we do about it? What kind of a--what kind of a control can you put on this? What can you do? What should we do?)

(20) (--I get the feeling that we all think the newspaper's a good idea. And I'd like to do that, you know, get to work on it and do something with it and see if we can bring in other people and make it work. Use it as a starting point. A point to work off from and do other things.)

TASK ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	--Okay, our break is over. We better get back to work. Would you sit down?
	--After you, young lady.
	--Miss Rotha.
(21)	(--If we kind of collect our thoughts, to resume where we were before some of our members had to leave. Jeff had said something to Brian about revolution and I think Steve you were pondering jumping in on it.)
	--I--I still think that sponge--that beans will only grow in soil. But other plants--some other plants, but not all other plants may grow in water.
(22)	(--Well, I think that the only way we can come to a conclusion whether they'll grow or not, and in what, is to try both things. And Paul thinks that it'll grow in sponge and Debbie thinks it'll grow in cotton, and I think the only way we can do it is to try it.)

UNIFYING ROLES
Description of the Concept*

The concept Unifying Roles consists of behavior engaged in by group members for the purpose of building and maintaining unity and momentum. Five unifying behaviors which can occur are:

A. Gatekeeping
B. Energizing
C. Harmonizing
D. Compromising
E. Encouraging

Again, as in the case of task roles, these are not the only behaviors which could describe unifying roles. They have been selected because they are quite essential for unifying purposes. The unifying behaviors are aimed at constructing good relationships among group members, and creating an atmosphere in which individuals feel free to contribute and communicate. Since the emphasis is on affective rather than cognitive interactions, the examples will include some possible non-verbal attributes of the behaviors.

A. Gatekeeping: attempting to keep communication channels open by facilitating the participation of group members

Examples:
- a. Verbal: "That point has been well presented by John and Bartholomew but Beatrice hasn't said anything about it yet."
  Non-verbal: warmth, concern
- b. Verbal: "Hold it. We're all trying to talk at once. Why don't we go around the table and get everyone's opinion?"
  Non-verbal: assertive, positive

Commentary: The gatekeeping member monitors the communication flow. How formalized and how frequent gatekeeping is in a particular group depends upon the group's level of maturity, its size, its task, and its style. Thus, a large group may find it necessary to appoint a member to call on those who wish to speak. A small group that has functioned together for a long time may have experienced the natural evolution of certain rules, such as "We won't interrupt one another" or "We vote on all important issues." In such a group, the rules may be so well understood that all members function as gatekeepers by monitoring themselves.

Whether exercised as an internalized process or a formal function, gatekeeping is an extremely necessary function for a healthy group. If each member does not have the opportunity to have his say, or if communication flows only in one direction--from the leader to the group--the group may eventually dissolve for lack of a voice.

Gatekeeping is one of the functions that a leader, or a teacher serving as leader, might consider delegating. Sometimes leaders think they must assume most of the task and unifying roles. This can keep a group from developing a sense of itself as a capable organization, or can keep members from acquiring needed skills. Although as a teacher you probably are very much concerned with acting as a gatekeeper, students should also be encouraged to play this role.

B. Energizing: urging or stimulating the group to action

Examples: a. Verbal: "Wake up, we've only been at it for an hour and we have so much more to do. Let's move."

Non-verbal: intense

b. Verbal: "Hey, listen, really, let's follow this up because this idea could be the answer to our dilemma."

Non-verbal: enthusiastic

Commentary: The energizing member pushes the group to perform, prods it to greater heights or new directions. The energizing action may be related to either task or affective aims. For example, a member may urge the group to solve an interpersonal problem, such as conflict between members, or he may make a strong plea for accomplishing a piece of work.

Members who energize consistently tend to be either leaders or persons who are willing to take significant responsibility. One sign of a mature group may be the degree to which energizing is a shared activity. If one or two members are always providing most of the impetus, the others may be overly passive. Of course, the particular cause of the passivity will depend on the situation. These members may always rely on others to provide the steam, or they may be uninterested in the subject, or they may basically dislike the group.

C. Harmonizing: attempting to mediate differences among group members

Examples: a. Verbal: "You want to have the meeting at noon and Mervin wants to meet at four in the afternoon. What about 2:30?"

Non-verbal: concerned, positive

b. Verbal: "We can't seem to agree on any of these alternatives and we can't seem to stop arguing. I think we should take a break, calm down, and then come back and see if we can combine some of the assets of each suggestion."

Non-verbal: confident, calm

Commentary: The harmonizing member tries to resolve conflicts. He does not always succeed.

Most groups endure periods of conflict, and groups that do so are likely to become more cohesive. In handling personality clashes and differences over task issues, groups are likely to acquire skill in harmonizing, compromising and gatekeeping. If you decide to help a group deal with conflict, you could let them know that both task and personal conflicts happen to groups. They may ask you to spend time talking with them about ways to resolve friction between members or ways to "problem-solve" a task issue. Or they may wish to go through conflict on their own, finding their own ways to cope.

The harmonizing member(s) might suggest various means of resolving conflicts. For example, in conflicts over task matters he can propose that the group discuss, debate, or seek outside advice: in conflicts over personal matters, he may suggest role-playing, having a cooling-off period, or inviting someone else to help. As the group becomes skilled in coping with a whole range of conflicts more members will become capable of harmonizing, and some will specialize in certain types of harmonizing. One person might be able to help the group out of a stalemate over an academic question while another person might be adept at easing hurt feeling.

D. Compromising: agreeing to alter one's stand or admit error in one's own position

Examples: a. Verbal: "You may be right. I didn't look at it that way."

Non-verbal: relieved

b. Verbal: "I still don't agree with the rest of you, but I'll consent to the plan anyhow."

Non-verbal: displeased

Commentary: The compromising member yields to other members when they oppose his view or point. Compromising, like harmonizing, makes it possible for a group to move past a stalemate, or create a unified position when necessary. Of course, there are cases when compromising should be delayed or even avoided. To compromise one's case too early can be a mistake. If the position has merit it's worth fighting for. Or perhaps, compromise is not in order at all, since the member may feel he has chosen the only position that will reasonably benefit the group, and is willing to work tirelessly to convince the other members (as one might do on a jury).

Compromising has crucial implications for the teacher. Both as participant in the small group or leader of the class, you can model compromising behavior. However, because your position carries authority, you may without thinking about it expect more compromising behavior from the students than you do from yourself. Depending upon the situation, this may be patently unfair or it may be appropriate. But when students feel that your uncompromising position is unfair, they may acquiesce meekly and silently resent you, or they may openly resist.

E. Encouraging: praising, agreeing with, or accepting the contributions of group members

Examples: a. Verbal: "Wow, we're really getting a lot done today."

Non-verbal: warmth, enthusiasm

b. Verbal: "I like your suggestion."

Non-verbal: pleased, gentle

Commentary: The encouraging member gives support. We feel encouraging behavior may be the single most important behavior described within the unifying roles, yet it is too often absent from the group member's repertoire.

The quality of both the task motivation of the group and the personal interactions may be profoundly affected by a lack of positive feedback on the part of student or teacher members. Genuine acceptance and warmth may not only be modeled by the others, it may also become the chief reason the members remain a group.

You may want to take an active role in encouraging "encouraging"--by praising supportive statements and acts. You might say, "I'm glad to hear you're giving yourselves credit" or "I just heard Marcel tell Richard that he read his work. I think it's great you do that for each other."

This is not to say that group members should not communicate negative feelings as well. But you may need to help group members learn the difference between rejecting a member's contribution and rejecting the member himself. In this case, how well members listen to one another or the tone in which criticism is made, makes the difference.

TRANSCRIPT

GROUP PROCESS: UNIFYING ROLES *

Instructions:

There are several student behaviors engaged in by group members for the purpose of building and maintaining unity and momentum. Five of these unifying behaviors are:

1. Gatekeeping -- attempting to keep communication channels open by facilitating the participation of group members.
2. Energizing -- using or stimulating the group to action.
3. Harmonizing -- attempting to mediate differences among group members.
4. Compromising -- agreeing to alter one's stand or admit error in one's own position.
5. Encouraging -- praising, agreeing with, or accepting the contributions of group members.

The following is a transcript taken from a classroom situation. Throughout the transcript you will find certain student remarks are in parentheses. Read the transcript and identify the Unifying Role of the remarks in parentheses by writing the appropriate behavior to the left of the remark.

UNIFYING ROLES

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
(1)	(--Take a vote. Anybody in here that has been hit with a nationball and it hurt very much? Thought you would just about cry you hurt so bad?)
	--Me.
	--I won't talk.
	--If you don't want to, it's alright man.
	--Come on Bruce.
(2)	(--Yeah Bruce, we haven't heard from you in a while. For about an hour.)
	--He's thinking, I suppose.
	--Oh, brother.
	--If they are walking in the grass they deserve to get water on their heads.
	--Aw, man, people are gonna look at this place and the manager is not gonna like that too much. I mean, you know.
(3)	(--Paul and Marty, you're just sitting there, you know maybe you're getting bored with this, but

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	we said we would move it. What do you think? Do you think like Steve, or do you think we gotta do what Chris says?
(4)	(--Well, if we are going to play this game why don't we think of some more rules? We only got about 15 minutes.)
	--They want it bad, but they want other people to do their work for them. --Right. --I know, that's how come nothing's getting done. --(overlapping) --You have to get people enthused. You just can't announce it in the daily bulletin and expect people--I think maybe... --Okay, what should we do then?
(5)	--Okay, listen. (I think that maybe during lunchtime it wouldn't be taking off the peoples' lunchtime.

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	or inconveniencing them in any way. But what we should do is, we should have kind of like a rally, and let them sit around, get a microphone set up and talk to them about it. And if they didn't want to listen... That way we'd at least get across and get some power-packed hitting things.)
	--Pretty soon by the time you get through with the business everybody's bored and restless and has to ...
	--Yeah, I'm getting a little bored and restless right now.
(6)	--Okay, then that's a cirticism, a very valid criticism, that the Town Meetings just take so long, (okay, we should do something about it, instead of all walking out of the door and saying, "Wow, man, that just took so long I'm so bored I can't stand it, I'm gonna go home and eat lunch," we should sit there and see what we can do about it.)

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
(7)	(--Why don't the students, you know. just be alone on recess and break and then teachers be the referee on P.E.?)
	--We don't want really to be fair, we want to win.
	--Right.
	--I don't want to go against this in an unfair way, you know.
	--But that's not really unfair.
	--It's not really unfair. They've had a lot of time.
	--They've had a lot of advantages.
	--Because, see...
	--Yeah.
	--I think...
	--They don't even have to research.
	--I think we should let them--let them have a group discussion or something and then one day like meet in the multipurpose room and we could have like a debate to see where we stand, exactly.

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	--We already know where we stand.
	--It's just that feeling- I mean...you know. That's just what they--They think that will happen. That's all they are saying is, this is gonna happen, you know. They're gonna steal Safeway or something, you know.
(8)	(--Well, I think all Inez wants to do is have a debate to bring out all the issues, you know, and see who's right and who's wrong, instead of just getting a group of people together, I think the school board, they are all against it.)
	--That would be good.
	--It's easy, we get the saw from the next room, you cut the door, the door is like that, you cut a big hole in it, some people get up, then move the big door, then set it aside, you put the aquarium on wheels and then you just haul it through.

UNIFYING ROLE

TRANSCRIPT

--What are you gonna do with the big hole after you're finished?

--What?

--What are you gonna do with the big hole when you're finished?

--Put the door back in its spot and you patch it up.

--Yeah, the reason we're taking it apart is because it's too heavy. Now how're you gonna put it up on the--on the wheels?

--People got muscles you know, we can lift.

--We can't lift an aquarium.

--Nobody here...

--What?

--I said nobody here's got muscles.

--Well, you can grab one of those--um, you can get a board and stick right under it and you can just lift it like that.

--We don't have one of those

--With no water or fish or anything it should be pretty easy.

(9) (--Okay Paul, why don't you do us a favor and just--

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	okay, why don't we just take it apart, and then the next time we have to do it we'll do it your way, okay?)
	--No.
	--I think maybe that would be a good idea. To let you referee yourself at your break time and over your lunch hour and then if we play a class game on your own P.E. period, I referee you at that time.
(10)	(--Alright, I'll accept that. That sounds fair enough.
	--I agree to that.)
	--We just can't have a sit-in, you know.
	--Open campus...
	--Something that trivial...
	--Hey, you know, we're gonna have to...

UNIFYING ROLE

TRANSCRIPT

--I think we should just have that-

--What?

--Everybody leave the campus. And we're all suspended.

--Really. Really.

--I know. Stop. Nobody go to the school. And we're all suspended for a week.

--Open campus is way more involved than just that clothes code...

--Yeah, I think it is.

--I mean you got...

--Okay, maybe one more time--maybe one more time go through the proper channels, like we did before, and make it a well known thing. Have speeches and everything. Go through the channels, make sure everybody knows about it and then if we don't get it, resort to the more (11) drastic action. (Just--just do this part even though I know it wouldn't work. Just do it to prove to them that we've tried everything. Okay, every peaceful way so they can't say, "Well, a lot of people didn't know about it and nobody

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	cared because you didn't have the support and everything, and you didn't go through the proper channels first.")
	--And even if it is a few inches bigger, all you can do is turn it diagonal and it'll go through.
	--Put it this way Paul, how did they get it in here? We can get it out the same way they got it in here. If they couldn't fit it through the door, how did they get it in here?
(12)	(--Alright, alright, okay, I'll agree with you.)
	--Alright.
(13)	(--So that was a good suggestion that helps whoever is playing have that extra margin to ah, give that extra oomph. Because it seems like some of the girls are having a hard time getting the ball over. And then also, no socking or overhand of the ball. You have less control

UNIFYING ROLE	TRANSCRIPT
	anyway--but to hold the ball. So what else can you come up with? Those are three great ideas.)
(14)	(--Right, I think it's gonna work, I really do. I think--I think we've got it down just about perfect. It's really beautiful.)
	--You can't grow a bean up and just, you know, in a machine, you know, you need the ground soil.
	--Well the ground soil--The ground soil makes a bean, um, softer. So does water, so you can grow a bean in water.
	--No.
	--Well, water helps. It might just take long.
(15)	(--Hey, Debbie, you got-you have a point there, because this is so soft that it even'll bend.)
	--I know.

STAGES OF GROUP GROWTH
Description of the Concept*

The concept Stages of Group Growth consists of four phases which a group may endure. These are:

A. Initial communication

B. Conflict which blocks achievement of the group goal

C. Resolution of conflict

D. Increased productivity

These stages are usually sequential, yet they do not always occur in the expected order. Further, the length of time a group will spend at any one point can vary drastically--one group may take an hour or a day to plan its work, another may need several months. Some groups may cycle through one or several of the stages more than once, depending upon the number of tasks and problems they face and the duration of the group's existence. Some may start in a more advanced stage, never needing to experience preliminary growing pains; others may become stuck in a planning or organizing phase and disband out of frustration.

A. Stage One: Initial Communication: the group may do any of the following:

1. Set goals or clarify the purpose of the meeting

Example: Gerald:
"I'm not quite sure why this group was formed."

Jean:
"Well, we better talk about that first."

Cloe:
"Okay, according to the memo, we're going to put on a play."

Gerald:
"Oh, but I thought..."

2. Devise a plan of action

Example: Vince:
"I propose we spend three weeks in the field before each major decision point."

Daniel:
"You mean you think we'll do a better job if we really know what's going on out there?"

Vince:
"Yes, much better than last year's proposal committee."

Daniel:
"Well, you may be right, but you have to consider the amount of time this will take."

3. Choose leaders, or experience the natural emergence of leaders

Example: Paul:
"Amy Lee seems to know more about what we're doing than the rest of us. Amy Lee, tell us what to do."

Amy Lee:
"No, I don't like to give directions."

Marge:
"All right, all right, well...why don't we start by telling us what you know."

Commentary: Unless the group has extraordinary enthusiasm or experience, getting started is hard. The group is not yet a group. Some or all of the members may not even know each other. Stage One is a time of testing. Who knows what we're doing? Who's timid? Who's assertive? Do we want to work together at all?

With this stage, and with all the stages, you can probably be best prepared by just being aware of what might occur. If you know that starting is rough, that members might not click with one another, that it takes talk and time to name goals and make plans, and that leadership roles need to be worked out, you are likely to be more willing to watch the group fumble.

You could let them know that you understand getting started takes time and that if they want some suggestions on how to proceed, they should feel free to ask you to help. Or you may wish to leave them completely alone and say nothing at all, on the premise that their need for autonomy is greater than their need for guidance.

B. Stage Two: Conflict which stops the group from reaching its goal: the group may experience either or both of the following:

1. Conflicts involving the content of the task at hand

Example: Merrill:
"I know we don't have enough time to get even half of the project finished."

Helen:
"Oh my God, you're right."

Moe:
"Looks like a kind of bankruptcy for this organization."

Merrill:
"Yeah! I haven't the slightest idea how to get us out of this mess."

2. Personal clashes among group members

Example: Rea
"With you here we never get anything done."

Joe:
"Oh yeah!"

Rea:
"You've got a mouth like a *****."

Joe:
"All right, I've had it, I'm pulling out and I bet half the group comes with me."

Commentary: Perhaps the most important thing that can be said about Stage Two is that it can and does occur. Too often a state of no conflict is looked upon as a desirable goal for groups. Conflict can be healthy and probably is a necessary phenomenon in groups. By attempting to deal with their differences, whether over task or personal matters, members develop respect for their individuality and a sense of their ability to survive difficulties. Classroom groups that experience conflict are exposed to a world that at least bears a resemblance to the one they step out into when they leave the school world. Your main role either as a member of a group or as an observer may be to reassure the group that conflict is not only acceptable but is also something to be expected.

Depending upon the behavior and previous experience of the students, the teacher may wish to set certain limits. Violence may be out of bounds. Prolonged verbal haranguing may be ruled out. Anti-group roles, such as aggressing and dominating, may be discouraged. In other words, it will be important to help students see the difference between the form the conflict takes and the messages which are being communicated.

However, conflict, particularly when it involves friction between persons, has a certain unpredictable quality. If there are too many prescriptions as to how negative statements and feeling should be communicated, spontaneity will be squelched. Some verbal harshness or hurt feelings will sometimes just be part of the process that precedes peace.

C. Stage Three: Resolution of conflict: the group may do either or both of the following:

1. Find solutions to task-related conflicts by compromising, accepting the decision of their leader, using the help of an outside negotiator, or other means the group devises.

Example: Chet:
"We better find a way out of this impasse."

Cam:
"I'm stuck, too."

Ada:
"Look, I have an idea. Let's each speak our minds for three minutes without being interrupted and take a vote on which of the two plans is best. How does that sound to you?"

(group agrees to this; everyone talks, and then a vote is taken)

Chet:
"Whew! Well, we got through that. At least, we have a decision and we can get moving--even if it's not the one I would have voted for."

2. Settle personal clashes or convince conflicting parties to refocus attention to the group's goal(s).

Example: Gary:
"All right, all right, so half of you like the way I lead and half of you don't. What the ***** do you want me to do? I feel like the baby King Solomon would have divided in half."

Gloria:

"Calm down, Gary. Those of us who criticized you didn't say we wanted you to stop being our leader."

Gary:
"Well *****, what do you mean?"

Lisa:
"Look, lets take a break, so we can all cool off."

(After a half hour, the group gets back in session.)

Gary:
"Okay, look, I feel a little better. I think I'm ready to hear some of your comments now...but this isn't easy, you know, so I'm going to tell you what I think too."

Gloria:
"Fair enough."

Commentary: The resolution of conflict is often a process that evolves from within the group. It's a process that relies upon the group's spontaneity and imagination and good will.

Timing is often important. The group may be exhausted and blocked. After a rest, obstacles are more easily overcome.

Many kinds of energy can contribute to the resolution. One member may be a harmonizing force while another initiates alternatives and yet another performs as gatekeeper.

Both individuals and groups may be embarrassed at "being stuck", and this embarrassment in itself may block resolution. In this situation, you or an experienced group member could let the others know this happens to lots of people who are trying to create something--whether the object of creation is the group itself or the task it has undertaken.

D. Stage Four: Increased productivity: the group may become either or both of the following:

1. More purposeful, noticeably closer to its goal

Example: Debbie:
"You know, this is finally beginning to hang together. And I'm getting excited."

Dave:
"I know what you mean."

Mort:
"Well, I'm ready for a rest."

Debbie:
"Not me, I'm just beginning to see an end in sight. Can't stop."

Dave:
"Yeah, now we've plowed and planted. I'm not going home until we water it. Aw...Get to work."

2. More cooperative; more able to cope with personal clashes with understanding, humor and speed

Example: Arnie:
"I'm not going to do this alone. I'm not. I'm not."

Jim:
"We heard you! We heard you!"

Cory:
"So who do you think you are...anyway?"

Arnie:
"The King, the King (of Hearts), who else?"

Cory:
"Well, look at him!"

(Laughter)

Commentary: Stage Four has a certain fluid and perhaps elusive quality. Since persons and groups have their "up's" and "down's," it would be unreasonable to judge that a group had reached Stage Four only when it is constantly purposeful and positive. What is important is the general feeling and trend.

Groups are so different in their make-up and history that it may be unreasonable to expect Stage Four to look the same from group to group. The description of Stage Four for a particular group should be viewed in relation to its previous stages. A group that has endured intense and repeated conflict may reach the productive stage with a sense of quiet and calm. Another group, plagued by indecision and a low interest level, may express obvious and catching enthusiasm in Stage Four.

A group, formed for purely social purposes and never having had to accomplish a specific task, may be described as productive in Stage Four in terms of the amount of satisfaction gained from interactions rather than by its progress towards a tangible product.

SUPPLEMENT F

ROLE PLAYING

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SESSION VI

Overview

This supplement explains the theory and mechanics of role-playing. The section, "Theory: The Role Playing Model", points out the idea that role playing can be used in many different situations. One important advantage of this technique is that it encourages the use of emotions and intellectual ability. Shaftel and Shaftel suggest that roleplaying preparation should include warming up the group, selecting participants, preparing observers, setting the stage, enactment, evaluation, reenactment, more evaluation, and finally drawing generalizations.

In the section, "Role Playing: Critical Skills", emphasis is put on specific planning for the role playing activity. Through questioning, the teacher can emphasize feelings, values, problem-solving skills, or subject matter exploration. With a definite focus in mind, the teacher can plan a story with an appropriate sequence of events for the students to act out and discuss. The teacher must adequately facilitate the role-playing exercise to sucessfully attain the planned goals.

Directions

For this session, you will be asked to read and study about the theory of role playing and critical skills necessary to complete the role playing activity. Classroom activities include a tape presentation and a role playing exercise. Read the following directions carefully before you begin, to complete this session successfully.

Role Playing*

1. Read and study "Theory: The Role Playing Model".
2. Read and study "Role Playing: Critical Skills".
3. View the video training tape.
4. Demonstrate this concept by having four or five class members present a role-playing activity.

* The source of materials indicated throughout the supplement may be found in the Facilitator's Guide.

THEORY: THE ROLE PLAYING MODEL*

Overview

In role playing as a teaching strategy, students explore human relations problems by enacting or improvising problem situations and then discussing the enactments. Role playing gives students a sample of human interaction to analyze in order to identify alternative ways of handling situations, clarify social values, and learn to deal with the emotions in conflict situations. At the same time, because it is built on role playing rather than on a real problem situation, the participants can analyze their own behavior and permit their values to be criticized without the severe consequences which may occur when real conflicts are explored. For example, in a role-playing situation one can take on the role of a dishonest person and then carry on a discussion of honesty and dishonesty and one's own feelings about it, something much more difficult when it follows a real act of dishonesty. Through role playing one can also enter into unfamiliar roles. A leader can experience how it feels to be left out, shy, or made fun of. A bully can learn how it feels to be bullied.

Role playing as a strategy has roots in both the personal and social dimensions of social education. It belongs in the personal dimension because it attempts to help the individual find personal meaning within his social world. It belongs also in the social dimension because it allows groups of individuals to work together to analyze social situations, especially problem situations, and to develop decent and democratic ways of coping with these situations. The underlying assumption of the strategy is that by becoming conscious of the values that guide our behavior and of their consequences for ourselves and others, we can look at our own values critically, modify them if necessary, enhance our sensitivity to others, and improve our skill in relating to them.

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*This model comes from the work of Fannie and George Shaftel. See: Role Playing for Social Values. (Harper and Row, 1971), pp. 32-37.

The Essence of the Strategy

At one level, role playing is simply the enactment of a problem situation by several members of a group while other members observe the enactment. Depending on the educational purpose of the activity, the children or the teacher may select and analyze a particular aspect of the situation. At another level, group members become deeply involved and experience many of the same emotional reactions that they have in similar true-life situations. In a sense, well done role playing becomes a part of life. A person puts himself in the position of another person and then tries to interact with someone else who is also playing a role. Empathy, sympathy, anger, and affection are all generated during the interaction. The emotional content as well as the words and the actions become part of the later analysis.(1)

Role playing has the power to motivate participants and observers alike because it involves them and generates emotional as well as intellectual content. When two people are playing roles, for instance, in which one is prejudiced and the other is trying to overcome them, the observers begin to "want" the conflict to be resolved. When the situation is finished, even the observers are involved enough to want to know why the one person reached the other, what the sources of resistance were, and whether there were other ways this kind of situation could have been approached. The essence of role playing is the involvement of participants and observers in a real problem situation and the desire for resolution and understanding that this involvement engenders.

Several people have experimented with role playing for social education. Their treatments of the strategy are remarkably similar. The version we will explore was formulated by Fannie and George Shaftel. The Shaftels have developed stories that pose common human problems; these problems can be used to stimulate role playing. However, any type of difficult interpersonal situation or event can be transferred to a role-playing situation.(2)

There are two basic reasons why a teacher might decide to use role playing with a group of children. One reason is to begin a program of social education in which a role-playing situation forms much of the material to be discussed and analyzed; for this purpose a particular kind of problem story might be selected. The second reason is to help a group of children deal with a human relations problem they have; role playing can open up a problem area to the children's inquiry to help them solve the problem. The first situation is a systematic, curricular use of role playing in a program of social education, whereas the second is an incidental use of role playing for counseling purposes.

Role playing may also be considered a general process in which social problems are dealt with through action. Students define the problem, delineate alternatives, experience the consequences through role playing, and analyze the consequences. As a process, role playing develops inquiry skills and provides practice in decision making. Several types of social problems are amenable to exploration through this model including:

1. Interpersonal conflicts. A major use of role playing is to reveal interpersonal conflicts so that students can discover techniques for overcoming them.
2. Intergroup relations. Interpersonal problems arising from ethnic and racial stereotyping or from dichotomous, unilateral thinking can also be explored through role playing. These problems involve conflict, but the conflict may not be apparent. Role-playing situations of this type might be used to uncover stereotypes and prejudices or to encourage acceptance of the deviant.
3. Individual dilemmas. These arise when a person is caught between two contrasting values or between his own interests and the interests of others. This kind of problem is particularly difficult for young children to deal with, since their moral judgment is still relatively egocentric. Some of the most delicate and difficult uses of role playing make accessible to the child this dilemma and help him understand why it occurs and what he can do about it. A situation for such use might be one in which a person is caught between the demands of his peer group and those of his parents or between the pressures of the group and his own preferences.

Role playing is designed especially to alter social and emotional behavior. But how can a teacher determine whether changes in these kinds of behaviors have occurred? In their book Chesler and Fox discuss role-playing evaluation and suggest techniques for assessing student performance.(3) They also list one teacher's evidence of student growth.

1. Students were able to suggest a greater variety of solutions for a given problem situation.
2. They were less inhibited and more able to respond to one another's problems in class.
3. They were better able to act out their feelings and examine them in class.
4. Children who had been socially ineffective began to learn more appropriate and effective social behavior.
5. Formerly rejected children were increasingly integrated into the classroom process.
6. The students asked her to arrange joint sessions with older classes so that the lessons of the role-playing experience could be shared with real sixth-graders.(4)

The benefits of role playing are not merely in completing an enactment but in the quality of the enactment and of the analysis, and in the application to real-life situations.

A sincere involvement in the roles is essential if the experience is to be meaningful. Children would not necessarily engage effectively in role or role analysis the first time they try it. Many have to learn to engage in role playing in a sincere way so that the content generated can be seriously analyzed. Some authorities in role playing suggest pantomimic exercises as a way of freeing inexperienced students.(5)

Role playing is not likely to be successful if one simply suggests it to the students, tosses out a problem situation, persuades a few children to act it out, and then conducts a discussion about their enactment. The Shaftels suggest that the role-playing activity consist of nine steps.

1. Warm up the group
2. Select participants
3. Prepare observers
4. Set the stage
5. Enact
6. Discuss and evaluate
7. Reenact
8. Discuss and evaluate
9. Share experiences and generalize

Figure 1 shows these steps and activities.

Figure 1

Steps and Activities in Role Playing

Step	Activity
1. Warm up the group	Identify or introduce problem Make problem explicit Speculate on or interpret problem story
2. Select participants	Describe roles Choose role players
3. Set the stage	Set line of action Restate roles Get inside problem situation
4. Prepare the observers	Assign observation tasks
5. Enact	Begin role play Maintain role play Break role play
6. Discuss and evaluate	Focus on action in role play Shift to alternative proposals
7. Reenact	Play revised roles, suggested next steps, or behavioral alternatives
8. Discuss and evaluate	As in step 6
9. Share experiences and generalize	Share similar experiences Formulate general principles of conduct

Steps in the Strategy: A Discussion

1. Warm up the Group

The first step involves introducing students to a problem so that they recognize it as a problem that everyone needs to learn to deal with. The warm up can begin, for example, by identifying a problem within the group.

> Teacher: "Do you remember the other day we had a discussion about Janey's lunch money? Because she had put her money in her pocket and had not given it to me when she came into the room it was lost. We had quite a talk about finding money: whether to keep it or turn it in.
>
> Sometimes it's not easy to decide what to do. Do you ever have times when you just don't know what to do?"

The teacher sensitizes the group to a problem and creates a climate of acceptance so that students feel that all views, feelings, and behaviors can be explored without retribution.

The second part of the warm up is to express the problem vividly through examples. These may come from student descriptions of imaginary or real situations that express the problem, and from situations selected by the teacher, such as a film, television show, or problem story.

In their book the Shaftels have provided a large selection of problem stories to be read to the class. Each story stops when a dilemma has become apparent. The Shaftels feel that problem stories have several advantages. They focus on a particular problem and yet ensure that the children will be able to disassociate themselves from the problem enough to face it. Incidents the students have experienced in their lives or the group has experienced as a whole, while visually and emotionally involving, can cause considerable stress and therefore be very difficult to analyze. Another advantage of the stories is that they are dramatic and make role playing relatively easy to initiate. The burden of getting the children into the activity is lightened.

The last part of the warm up is to ask questions so that the children will think about and predict the outcome of the story: "How might the story end?"; "What is Sam's problem and what can he do about it?" The teacher in the illustration above handled this step like this:

Teacher: "I would like to read you a story this afternoon about a boy who found himself in just such a spot. His parents wanted him to do one thing, but his gang insisted he do something else. Trying to please everybody, he got himself into difficulty. This will be one of those problem stories which stop, but are not finished."

A Pupil: "Like the one we did last week?"

Teacher: "Yes."

A Pupil: "Oh! But can't you give us one with an ending?"

Teacher: "When you get into a jam, does someone always come along and tell you how your problems will end?"

Pupils: "Oh, no! Not very often."

Teacher: "In life, we usually have to make our own endings - we have to solve our problems ourselves. That's why I'm reading you these problem stories - so that we can practice endings - try out many different ones to see which work the best for us.

"As I read this story, you might be thinking of what you would do if you were in Tommy Haines' place."

The story is about a boy caught between his father's views and those of his club. He has committed himself financially to a club effort his father does not approve of and would not support. Tommy does not have the money and resorts to somewhat devious means of getting it. The problem centers on Tommy's opportunity to clear the debt with his gang. He delivers a package for the druggist and is overpaid five dollars - enough to clear the debt. Tommy stands outside the customer's door, trying to decide whether to return or keep the money. After reading the story, the teacher focuses the discussion on what might happen next, thus preparing for different enactments of the situation.

Teacher: "What do you think Tommy will do?"

A Pupil: "I think he'll keep the money!"

Teacher: "Yes? - - -"

A Pupil: "Because he needs to pay the club."

A Pupil: "Oh, no he won't. He'll get found out, and he knows it."

2. Select Participants

The children and the teacher describe the various characters - what they are like, how they feel, and what kind of things they might do. Children are then asked to volunteer to role play, or they may ask for a particular role. The Shaftels caution teachers not to assign roles to a child who has been suggested for it because the person making the suggestion may be stereotyping the child or putting him in an awkward situation. A person must want to play a role or should be the one to suggest himself for it. Although she takes into account the children's preferences, the teacher should exercise some control in the situation.

The teacher can use several criteria for selecting a child for a role. Roles can be assigned to those children who appear to be involved or who identify with it, those who express an antisocial attitude that needs to be explored, those who will best typify the problem, or those who need to identify with the role or place themselves in another person's position. Shaftel cautions the teacher to avoid selecting children who would give "adult-oriented, socially acceptable" interpretations to the role because such a quick resolution of the problem dampens discussion and the exploration of the basic issues.(6)

In our illustration the teacher asks someone to be Tommy and then asks him what roles need to be filled. He answers that he'll need someone to be the customer and students to be the gang. The teacher asks several children to fill these roles.

3. Set the Stage

In this step the role players plan what they are going to do but do not prepare any specific dialogue. They simply sketch the setting and perhaps one person's line of action. The teacher may help set the stage by asking the students a few simple questions about where the enactment is taking place, what it is like, and so on. It is necessary only that a simple line of action be identified and a general setting clarified so that participants feel enough security in the roles to begin to act.

In our illustration the setting is arranged so that one corner of the classroom becomes the school where the gang is waiting for Tommy to bring the money; in another corner a chair is used to represent the door of the customer's house. The teacher asks the boy playing Tommy where in the action he wants to begin, and he decides to start with the scene where he is delivering the packages.

4. Prepare the Observers

It is important that the observers become actively involved so that the entire group experiences the enactment and can later analyze the play. The Shaftels suggest that the teacher involve observers in the role play by assigning them tasks, such as evaluating the reality of the role playing, commenting on the effectiveness and sequences of the role players' behavior, and defining the feelings and ways of thinking of the persons being portrayed. The observers should determine what the role players are trying to accomplish, what actions the role players took that were helpful or not helpful, and what alternatives might have been enacted. Or they can watch one particular role in order to define the feelings of that person. The observers should understand that there will be more than one enactment in most cases and that therefore if they would have acted our a certain role in a different way, they may get a chance to do so.

"In our illustration the teacher prepares the observers as follows: Now, you people, as you watch, consider whether you think Jerry's way of ending the story could really happen. How will people feel? You may want to think of what will happen next. Perhaps you'll have different ideas about it; and when Jerry's finished, and we've talked about it, we can try your ideas." (7)

5. Enact

At this point the role players carry out the situation. They assume the roles and "live" the situation, spontaneously, realistically responding to one another. The role playing is not expected to be a smooth dramatization, however. Nor is it expected that each role player will always know how to respond. This is part of life as well as part of feeling the role. A person may have a general idea of what to say or do but not be able to enact it when the time comes. The action now depends on the children and emerges according to what happens in the situation. This is why the previous steps were so important.

Shaftel and Shaftel suggest that enactments be short. The teacher should allow the enactment to run only until the proposed behavior is clear, a character has developed, a behavioral skill has been practiced, when an impasse is reached, or when the action has expressed its viewpoint or idea. She can then reenact this scene if the follow-up discussion reveals lack of understanding about the events or roles. The purpose of the first enactment is simply to establish events and roles, which in later enactments can be probed, analyzed, and reworked. During the initial enactment, role players of the major role can be changed to demonstrate the variety of the role and generate more data for discussion. In our illustration the boy playing Tommy chooses not to tell the customer that he has overpaid.

6. Discuss and Evaluate

If the problem was an important one and the participants and the observers were involved, then the discussion will probably begin spontaneously. At first the discussion may focus on different interpretations of the portrayal and disagreements over how the roles should have been carried out. Some people may think that individuals would not act the way they were portrayed. More important than these interpretations, however, are the consequences of the action and the motivations of an actor. To prepare for the next step, a teacher should focus the discussion on both of these aspects.

To help the observer think with the role players, the teacher can ask questions such as, "How do you suppose John felt when he said that?" The discussion will probably turn to alternatives both within the roles and within the total pattern of the situation. When it does, the stage is set for further enactments in which role players change their roles and interpretations, or play the roles in a different way.

The first enactment in our illustration went like this:

Teacher: "Well, Jerry has given us one solution. What do you think of it?"

A Pupil: "Uh-uh! It won't work!"

Jerry: "Why not?"

A Pupil: "That man is going to remember how much money he had. He'll phone the druggist about it."

Jerry: "So what? He can't prove anything on me. I'll just say he didn't overpay me."

A Pupil: "You'll lose your job."

Jerry: "When they can't prove it?"

A Pupil: "Yes. Even if they can't prove it!"

Teacher: "Why do you think so, John?"

John: "Because the druggist has to be on the side of his customer. He can fire Tommy and hire another boy. But he doesn't want his customers mad at him."

A Pupil: "He's going to feel pretty sick inside, if he keeps the money."

Teacher: "What do you mean?"

A Pupil: "Well, it bothers you when you know you've done something wrong."

Teacher: "Do you have any other way to solve this problem?"

A Pupil: "Yes. Tommy should knock on the door and tell the customer about being overpaid. Maybe the man'll let Tommy keep the money."

Teacher: "All right, let's try it your way, Dick."(8)

7. Reenact

The reenactment may take place many times. The students and the teacher can share new interpreattions of roles and decide whether new individuals should play them. The activity alternates between discussion and acting. The new enactments should explore as much as possible the new possibilities for causes and effects. For example, only one role may be changed so that everyone can observe how that change causes another role player to behave. Or at the critical point in the enactment, the participants may try to behave in a different way and see what the consequences are. In this way the role playing becomes a dramatic conceptual activity.

In our illustration, a second enactment produces the solution in which Tommy alerts the man to his overpayment and gets to keep the money for being so honest.

8. Discuss and Evaluate

In the discussion that follows the students are willing to accept the solution, but the teacher pushes for a realistic solution by asking whether they think this ending could really happen. One student has had a similar experience but was overpaid only $1.25, which he got to keep. The teacher asks the class whether they thought it might be different with five dollars. She asks for another solution, and it is suggested that Tommy consult his mother. There follows some discussion of Tommy's father, concepts about family, and parental roles. The teacher suggests that this third solution be enacted. Here's what happens in the third enactment:

Tommy: "Mom, I'm in an awful jam!"

Mother: "What's the trouble Tommy?" (Tommy tells his mother the whole story.)

Mother: "Why, Tommy, you should have told me sooner. Here, you pay the money (opens purse) and we'll talk this over with Dad when he comes home."(9)

During the discussion of this enactment the teacher asks what will happen next, and someone suggests that Tommy will get a licking. The students feel that this punishment will relieve Tommy's mind.

9. Share Experiences and Generalize

This period of sharing and generalization should not be expected to result in generalizations about the human relations situation itself. Such generalizations require much experience. The teacher should, however, attempt to shape the discussion so that the children, perhaps after long experience with this strategy, begin to form general ideas about approaches to problem situations and about the consequences of those approaches. The more adequately the shaping of discussion is done, the more general will be the conclusions that are reached and the closer the children will come to hypothetical principles of action they can use in their own lives.

The initial goal, however, is to relate the problem situation to the children's experience in a nonthreatening way. This goal can be accomplished by asking the class if they know someone who has had that experience. In our illustration with Tommy and the money, the teacher asks the class whether anyone knows of an instance in which a boy or girl was in a situation like Tommy's. One student describes an experience with his father. The teacher then asks about parental attitudes and the role of fathers with respect to their children's money.

From such discussions emerge principles that all students can articulate and use. These principles can be applied to this kind of problem situation or be used by the children as a springboard for the exploration of other kinds of problems. It is hoped that the children will graudally master the strategy so that when a problem comes up, either within their group or from a topic they have studied, they will be able to use role playing to gain insight into the problem or at least achieve clarity about it. Students might, for example, systematically use role playing to improve the quality of classroom democracy.

Teacher's Role

Teacher questions and comments should encourage free and honest expression of ideas and feelings. The teacher must establish equality and trust between himself and his students. He can do this by accepting all suggestions as legitimate and making no value judgments. He simply reflects the children's feelings or attitudes. For example, if a child reveals anger during the role play, the teacher might say, "You are very angry, aren't you?" Or the teacher might summarize the child's views: "It seems to me you are saying that you don't know what to do next."

Though the teacher is reflective and supportive, he is not nondirective. He often selects the problem to be explored, leads the discussion, chooses the actors, makes decisions about when to act enactments, helps design the enactments, and, most significantly, decides what to probe for and what suggestions to explore. In essence, the teacher shapes the exploration of behavior by the types of questions he asks, and through questioning, establishes the focus.

Reference Notes

1. For a definition of role and a discussion of the theoretical foundations of role playing, see Mark Chesler and Robert Fox, Role-Playing Methods in the Classroom (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966), pp. 5-11.
2. Ibid., pp. 64-80.
3. Ibid., pp. 45-50.
4. Ibid., p. 27.
5. Ibid., pp. 64-66.
6. Fanny and George Shaftel, Role-Playing for Social Values: Decision-Making in the Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967), p. 67.
7. Ibid.
8. Ibid., p. 71.
9. Ibid., p. 73.

ROLE PLAYING: CRITICAL SKILLS*

As you read earlier, role playing is an extremely versatile model and is applicable to several important educational objectives. In addition, it carries with it an appealing set of activities. Students like both the action and acting. Because of this we tend to forget that the role play itself is only a vehicle for other educational goals. Many teachers fall into the trap of thinking that "making enactments happen" (phases 5 and 7), or even going through all the phases, accomplishes the objectives of this model. Role playing is not designed to develop acting ability. In fact, the real purposes of role-playing strategy are less in the process than in the content that is developed and emerges, that is, the content of students' values, feelings, attitudes and solutions to problems. The processes all serve to explore this content.

Through skillful questioning and responding the teacher can insure an in-depth exploration of substance and emotional involvement on the part of the students. Teaching skills, both in planning and implementing the model, are important for high quality role-playing activities.

In this section we explore several critical teaching skills. One is a planning skill, some are general teaching skills designed to create a focus or improve praticipation and some related to specific phases of this model. The critical skills are listed in Figure 2.

Figure 2

I. Planning Skills

   1. Selecting a Focus

II. General Teaching Skills

   1. Paraphrasing
   2. Probing
   3. Summarizing
   4. Participation

III. Phase-Specific Skills

   1. Introduce the problem
   2. Conceptualization of roles
   3. Select the participants
   4. Set the line of action
   5. Get inside the situation
   6. Behavioral alternatives
   7. Analysis of feelings (observed)
   8. Analysis of behavioral reality
   9. Consequences of action
   10. Reflection and summary
   11. Prepare observers
   12. Monitor the enactment

SKILL 1

Selecting A Focus: A Critical Planning Skill

A planning skill is an analytical skill. It is part of the decisions you make in thinking about or planning for instruction rather than in interacting with your students. Planning skills are important because many of the instructional decisions you make before teaching limit, assist, hinder, or otherwise shape what happens when you teach. Deciding what to teach is a planning activity. The skill of selecting a focus is a decision about what to emphasize when you use the Role Playing Model. Then, as you plan further, your decision about the focus will govern the nature of your questions when you teach. The possible foci, discussed earlier, are listed below. We have organized these into four major categories:

1. Exploration of Feelings
2. Exploration of Attitudes, Values and Perceptions
3. Development of Problem-Solving Skills and Attitudes
4. Subject Matter Exploration.

Within each of these are several points of departure.

I. Role Playing as a Vehicle for Exploring Feelings
   a. exploring our own feelings
   b. exploring others' feelings
   c. acting out or releasing feelings
   d. to experience higher status roles in order to change the perceptions of others and one's own perceptions

II. Role Playing as a Vehicle for Exploring Attitudes, Values, and Perceptions
   a. to identify values of culture or subculture
   b. to clarify and evaluate one's own values and value conflicts

III. Role Playing as a Means of Developing Problem-Solving Attitudes and Skills

a. openness as to solution

b. ability to identify a problem

c. ability to generate alternative solutions

d. ability to evaluate the consequences to himself and others of behavioral alternatives

e. experiencing consequences and making final decisions in light of experienced consequences

f. to analyze criteria and assumptions behind alternatives

g. to acquire new behaviors

IV. Subject Matter Exploration

a. feelings of participants

b. historical realities: historical crises, dilemmas, and decisions

Because in the role-playing process all these foci tend to or could potentially emerge, it is easy to give only superficial consideration to them. One difficulty we are faced with then in using this model is that an in-depth treatment of any one focus requires time and trying to touch all possible foci in any one session is probably not helpful. We are inclined to feel that it is important to select one, perhaps two, major foci for any one session. This is more true at the beginning when students are getting accustomed to the model and to an exploration of their behavior and feelings.

The teaching skills for moving through the phases are all helpful, but should be used selectively depending on your major focus, e.g., Phase-Specific Skills. In the demonstration tape you will see how a teacher uses all these moves and, at the same time, maintains the focus on problem solving and the generation of alternative solutions.

Another thing to remember is that there is usually a key concept related to a focus that students may or may not be familiar with. For example, the notion of "inner or emotional conflict" is central to the purpose of exploration of feelings in a problem situation. We usually do not have a problem if there is no conflicting feelings. You may want to introduce students to the concept of "inner conflict" in a discussion before beginning the role playing model. During the model, you would maintain this focus by having them examine the problem and their feelings in terms of this concept. You may need to paraphrase the "inner conflict" they may be describing but can't label as such, and you may want to keep using the term "conflict." In other words, you raise to consciousness the problem of the conflict of feelings. Other central concepts related to each focus are presented below. Reflect on these, and others you may think of, as you prepare for this model. Ask yourself what it is in general you want the students to understand about feelings, values, and problem solving and how does that apply in this situation.

Sample Concepts Underlying Different Foci

Role Playing as a Vehicle for Exploring Feelings

1. concept of "inner conflict"
2. recognizing and naming feelings
3. concept of "role"
4. feelings can determine behavior

Role Playing as a Vehicle for Exploring Attitudes and Values

1. concept of "value"
2. values determine behavior
3. concept of "attitude"

Role Playing as a Means of Developing Problem-Solving Attitudes and Skills

1. concept of "behavioral alternatives"
2. concept of "problem solving and decision making"
3. concept of behavioral consequences
4. concept of a problem-solving style
5. concept of criteria for decision (ethical)
6. concept of risk

SKILL 2

Setting and Maintaining the Focus

Once you have determined your purposes in using this model, you can consider each phase in terms of the questions you will ask and themes you will emphasize. For example, rather than asking an open-ended question in the warm up, e.g., "What's this story about?" or "What's the problem here," you might be more specific, "What was John feeling?" or "What was most important to each of the people in the story (values)?" No one question alone will produce as much exploration as you need. The idea is to design a sequence which probes the events and ideas on the story in terms of the focus or concept you are emphasizing. And if students go into another focus such as how they might solve the problem, you should refocus them on John's feelings. You will see the teacher in the demonstration tape setting and maintaining the focus and refocusing students through all phases of the role playing model. Notice when and how she does this.

SKILL 3

Paraphrasing

In addition to the themes you initiate through your questions, you maintain, or more appropriately reiterate, the focus by paraphrasing the students' ideas. Paraphrasing is restating in new words the ideas of someone else. In this case, you would restate the students' ideas and at the same time, put them into the context of the focus or perhaps, a broader concept. Often students, especially younger ones, will recite the particulars and you can restate and interpret these on a more general level. This skill is used both in discussions and as a transition to further enactments.

SKILL 4

Probing

As students contribute their opinions and analyses to the problem situation, you will want to have them extend their ideas, especially in terms of the focus. If, for example, the focus in on feelings the student may explain the problem in terms of the actual choices of the person in the situation. The teacher may probe, pursuing the focus, by asking, "OK. So what's Mike feeling?" and then perhaps, paraphrase the students' response in terms of the conflicted feeling.

SKILL 5

Summarizing

Role playing enables students to compare their perceptions of reality and ways of solving problems with other people. As a result there will and should be a diversity of ideas. One of the skills for "keeping all ideas to the fore" is summarizing. Summarizing moves solicit or supply a review, or a list, of what has just occurred, acting or ideas.

Below are several examples of summarizing moves. This will help students keep track of one another's ideas and compare and contrast them.

SKILLS 6-17

Phase-Specific Skills

To start a particular step or activity in role playing.

6. Introduce the problem: to convey a sympathetic attitude toward the situation, and focus the student's attention. "We are often caught between what we want to do and what someone else wants us to do. This is a story about that situation. Try to think of what you might do."

7. Conceptualization of roles: to delineate and generalize about the character. "What kind of person is he?" "What is he like?" "What are some of the things he feels?" "Why does he behave that way?" "What are his parents like?"

8. Select the participants: to select the role players. Usually selection is developed indirectly in terms of a proposal or design of the situation. "Johnny, why don't you come up here and show us what you mean?" "Who will you need to help you?" "Whom will we need for this enactment?"

9. Set the line of action: to describe one way of handling the situation. "Okay, let's explore your idea of what happens if Tommy keeps the money."

10. Get inside the situation: to describe the time and place and perhaps one person's activity - who is doing what. "Where is this taking place?" "What is it like in this place?" "How do you happen to be there?" "What time of day is it?" "Mary, what are you doing when Sue walks in?"

11. Behavioral alternatives: to elicit proposals for solutions. "What could you suggest to solve the problem?" "Do you have any other way to solve the problem?" "What else could he have done?"

12. Analysis of feelings (observed): to analyze the feelings of the role players toward themselves and others, changes in feelings, and the feelings that result from others' actions. "How does Tommy feel?" "Why does he feel that way?" "How does he feel toward his father?" "Who will be affected by Tommy's behavior?" "How will they feel?" "Have Tommy's feelings changed?" "Why?"

13. Analysis of behavioral reality: to probe the reality of the enacted situation or of proposed solutions and circumstances. "Do you think that could really happen?" "Would it matter if circumstances were different?" "Why do you think that would happen?"

14. Consequences of action: to establish the events and analyze the consequences of observed or proposed behavior. "What happened?" "What were the results of Nelson's behavior?" "When he did that, what happened?" "What will happen if Tommy doesn't give the money back?"

15. Reflection and summary: to reflect the students' feelings or summarize ideas. This move is used both during discussion and as a transition to further enactments. "You feel guilty about the money." "You think you've done something wrong?" "You feel it's okay to do something your parents disapprove of because they do not make an effort to understand the situation." "You are saying that because he hit you first, it's all right to hit him back?"

16. Prepare observers: to assign observation tasks, to focus observation on the analysis of feeling, reality, or consequences, or to suggest the next steps of the action. "As you watch the actors, decide if that's how they would behave in real life." "Try to think about what will happen after his parents visit the teacher." "Try to decide what Tony is feeling."

17. Monitor the enactment: to shift to another solution or set up another enactment. In the first case, the role-playing leader steps in with a reflective or summarizing move. In the second case, he might say: "What is happening?" or "What will happen now?"

Remember that these moves should be used strategically depending on your purposes and major focus.

Figure 3

Types of Moves and the Role-Playing Strategy

Step	Type	Function
1. Warm up the group	Problem definition	Introduce problem and set climate
	Participation	Focus attention and initiate discussion
2. Select participants	Conceptualization of roles	Get students to feel roles
	Activity - specific	Select participants
3. Set the stage	Activity - specific	Set line of action
	Conceptualization of roles	Restate roles, if necessary
	Activity - specific	Get inside problem situation
4. Prepare the observers	Activity - specific	Assign observation tasks
5. Enact	Participation	Begin role play Maintain role play
	Reflection and summary	Break role play
	Activity - specific	Monitor enactment
6. Discuss and evaluate	Participation	Open up discussion
	Analysis of feelings	Analyze feelings
	Analysis of behavioral reality	Probe reality
	Consequences of action	Analyze events
	Reflection and summary	Summarize ideas
	Behavioral alternatives	Elicit proposals
	Activity - specific	Monitor enactment
7. Reenact	Same as 5	
8. Discuss and evaluate	Same as 6	
9. Share experiences and generalize	Reflection and summary	Summarize ideas

SUPPLEMENT G

FACILITATOR'S GUIDE

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INTRODUCTION

Supplement G, the Facilitator's Guide, has been prepared to aid the inservice leader(s) in guiding participants through the inservice materials. Directions, worksheet and transcript answers, presentation aids and some suggested alternate means of presenting the individual sessions have been provided in this supplement. In addition, the source of all materials, films, etc., utilized is presented under the section "Source of Materials."

The ideas, concepts, techniques, and manner of presentation in these supplements are nothing more than suggestions, some of which have been tried. The facilitator is encouraged to make those changes necessary to best meet the needs of the inservice participants.

SESSION I

Overview

Session I begins with the film "Aggressive Behavior". The film presents examples of aggressive behavior sometimes exhibited in the classroom by the teacher or students. A worksheet is utilized to aid viewers in recognizing and controlling aggressive behavior.

"Classroom Interaction", containing four subtopics, has several helpful methods to bring teacher and student into a more comfortable learning environment. The first subtopic, "Using Student Ideas", suggests six methods for acknowledging or acting upon student ideas. Another subtopic, "Lesson Organization", helps a teacher understand the fundamentals of an organized lesson which contributes to the ease of learning for the students. The subtopic, "Praise and Corrective Feedback", helps the teacher become familiar with verbal, non-verbal, and token ways of commending students and methods of facilitating incorrect student responses into a positive learning force. The last subtopic, "Questioning", suggests various levels of student questioning procedures that can be used to test the cognitive development of students on subject matter.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Aggressive Behavior" and "Classroom Interaction". "Classroom Interaction" has four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may complete them either individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find thorough directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Aggressive Behavior *

1. Read and study the definition of "Aggressive Behavior".
2. Complete in your own words the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Work in small groups to complete the worksheet exercises.
5. From film observations, complete the Post-Viewing Activities.
6. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing Activities with the program facilitator.
7. Read, study and provide the necessary information for the exercise in the section, "Some More Thoughts About Aggressive Behavior".
8. Review one of your classes and do the section "Now Use The Concept For Yourself".
9. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Classroom Interaction*

A. Using Student Ideas

1. Read and study the introduction "Using Student Ideas in Teaching".
   **Refer to the teaching aid "Using Student Ideas".
2. Conclude this subtopic by supplying the necessary information for the transcript, "Using Student Ideas".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

B. Lesson Organization

1. Read and study the introduction "Lesson Organization".
2. Read and study "Teacher Behavior Involved in Lesson Organization".
   **Refer to the teaching aid, "Lesson Organization" for further explanation of the preceeding teacher behavior components.
3. Follow the directions given and work in small groups to complete the transcript "Lesson Organization."
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Praise and Corrective Feedback

1. Read and study the introduction "Praise and Corrective Feedback in Teaching".
   **Refer to the teaching aid, "Praise".
2. Supply the necessary information for the exercise "Praise".
3. Do the matching exercise "Corrective Feedback".
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

D. Questioning

1. Read and study the introduction "Using Questions in Teaching".
2. Read and study "Classroom Interaction - Questioning".
   **Refer to the teaching aid "Questioning".
3. Complete the transcript "Questioning" in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

* Refer to page entitled, "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

** For facilitator's use.

TEACHING AID - USING STUDENT IDEAS

THE FOLLOWING MAY BE PRESENTED VERBALLY BY THE FACILITATOR AS A POSTSCRIPT TO THE INTRODUCTION "USING STUDENT IDEAS IN TEACHING".

With indirect teaching, the teacher does little lecturing and does not exert undue direction in a learning situation. The "direct" teaching pattern includes more lecture and other kinds of teacher behavior which control the interaction in the classroom.

The greatest difference between teachers who direct and those who are indirect is found in whether or not student ideas are used. The direct teacher does very little in the area of using student ideas while the indirect teacher utilizes student ideas frequently.

Using student ideas is a good predictor of positive achievement and positive attitudinal outcomes of instruction. Where student ideas are used, students are likely to achieve higher and like school better.

TEACHING AID - LESSON ORGANIZATION

THE FOLLOWING MAY BE VERBALLY PRESENTED BY THE FACILITATOR AS ADDITIONAL INFORMATION TO THE SECTION "TEACHER BEHAVIOR INVOLVED IN LESSON ORGANIZATION."

Lesson organization is the term we are using for the way in which teacher activities are put together, in order for the teacher to communicate more effectively to students. Teacher organization has been found to be positively correlated with student achievement while disorganization yielded negative correlations with student achievement.

Organization can be divided into nine subcategories.

(1) Specification of objectives - when goals were clear, teacher was rated high on organization.

(2) Review of previous work - ties to other curriculum areas or overviews; has a positive effect on learning.

(3) Task orientation - correlates highly positive with achievement.

(4) Signals of transitions - increases student achievement.

(5) Emphasis - upon particular words or ideas to be learned.

(6) Clarity of Explanation: positive correlation - clarity promotes factual gain
Includes: appropriateness of lesson to ability of student's interpretation.
Lack of clarity: negative correlation
Where 2 or more questions were contained in one interaction (unclear presentation).
Where information followed a question (obtains wrong answers or asks poorly structured questions).

(7) Check for student comprehension.

(8) Personal organization of teacher - positive correlation between businesslike teacher and student achievement; saves class time and maintains task-relevent class.

(9) Summary - positive correlation.

TEACHING AID - PRAISE

THE FOLLOWING MAY BE PRESENTED VERBALLY BY THE FACILITATOR AS CONCLUDING COMMENTS TO THE SECTION "PRAISE AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN TEACHING."

The effects of reinforcement on behavior has been extensively studied. Most has been in laboratory studies of the effects of food reinforcement on the behavior of animals. It has been assumed that praise to a human acts much like food to animals (i.e., humans may be shaped by the use or withholding or praise). The use of praise (verbal and nonverbal) has a positive correlation with achievement.

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Corrective feedback is a form of correction when the response is wrong and criticism is considered inappropriate. Much study has been conducted dealing with criticism in the classroom. In almost all cases criticism showed a negative correlation with achievement. Also, the more intense the criticism, the greater the negative correlation.

Obviously then, criticism is no value in the classroom. However, when the student gives an incorrect response, the teacher must reply. This is where corrective feedback is of value. It removes much of the negative effect which is associated with criticism. By channeling student responses into a correct mode, which can, in the end, be praised, corrective feedback becomes a positive force for student achievement.

TEACHING AID - QUESTIONING

THE TWO SECTIONS BELOW MAY BE PRESENTED BY THE FACILITATOR IN SUMMARY TO THE SECTIONS "USING QUESTIONS IN TEACHING" AND "CLASSROOM INTERACTION - QUESTIONING".

Using Questions In Teaching

A student's day is spent answering many questions. Four-fifths of school time is spent in question and answer interchange. Although the rate of questioning is high, are these questions tapping cognitive levels that result in greater learning?

Two-thirds of the questions require direct recall of textbook information. Students who are exposed to analysis and evaluation questions scored higher on tests and did not suffer on recall of facts. Students who were exposed to recall questions did not do as well on higher order evaluation questions.

Sander's Taxonomy of Questions

This strategy of questioning was designed as an aid for teachers to get students responding at certain levels of thinking and to reflect different levels of cognitive understanding.

There is no clear cut guide for the use of questions in the classroom. However, the understanding of question types, question strategies, and question effects is beneficial. Unwanted effects from particular question types can be avoided.

ANSWERS TO SESSION I MATERIALS

I. Aggressive Behavior - Post-Viewing Activities

State the definition for aggressive behavior (as used in this film):

Answer - Obtrusive behavior that seeks to control or exercise power over others.

List the aggressive behavior you observed in the film.

Answers - Verbal abuse
Increased Volume
"Striking" Tone
Controlling
Demanding
Dominating
Manipulating

II. Using Student Ideas - Transcript

Answers -

1. Restatement
2. Acknowledgment
3. Reinforcement
4. Acknowledgment
5. Restatement
6. Reinforcement
7. Restatement
8. Summarization
9. Reinforcement
10. Summarization (or) Restatement
11. Comparison
12. Comparison
13. Acknowledgment
14. Reinforcement
15. Restatement
16. Reinforcement
17. Comparison
18. Reinforcement
19. Comparison (or) Acknowledgment
20. Comparison (or) Restatement
21. Comparison
22. Comparison
23. Comparison
24. Acknowledgment
25. Restatement
26. Acknowledgment
27. Reinforcement
28. Restatement
29. Restatement
30. Reinforcement
31. Restatement
32. Comparison
33. Comparison
34. Restatement
35. Comparison
36. Comparison
37. Acknowledgment
38. Summarization
39. Restatement
40. Acknowledgment
41. Reinforcement
42. Comparison
43. Application
44. Summarization
45. Comparison
46. Summarization
47. Comparison
48. Summarization

III. Lesson Organization - Transcript

Answers -
1. Clarity of Explanation
2. Check for Comprehension
3. Summary (or) Review
4. Emphasis
5. Specification of Objectives
6. Clarity of Explanation (or) Summary
7. Review
8. Check for Comprehension
9. Signal for Transition
10. Task Orientation
11. Summary (or) Emphasis
12. Personal Organization
13. Specification of Objectives
14. Summary (or) Review
15. Emphasis
16. Specification of Objectives
17. Personal Organization
18. Task Orientation
19. Review
20. Signal of Transition

IV. Praise and Corrective Feedback

PRAISE EXERCISE
(Answers)

Directions: Place an X in the column(s) that pertain to the situation described.

	Verbal Praise	Nonverbal Praise	Tokens of Praise	Praise for Academic Behavior	Praise for Social Behavior	Group Praise	Praise of Individual	Praise for Explicit Behavior	Praise for Nonexplicit Behavior	Immediate Praise	Delayed Praise
1. John received the highest citizenship grade.			X		X		X	X			X
2. When Jose finished reading, the teacher applauded loudly.		X		X			X	X		X	
3. The teacher told Jose's parents that Jose was an outstanding reader.	X			X			X	X			X
4. After Joan solved the problem, the teacher found no mistakes. So she placed an A above the problem.			X	X			X	X		X	
5. The coach said, "You are the best quarterback on the team."	X				X		X	X		X	
6. The PE teacher gave extra points to girls who showed good sportsmanship.			X		X		X	X			X
7. "My teacher really seemed to like my dress," said Lori.		X			X		X		X	X	
8. The teacher patted my shoulder as I placed the litter in the can.		X			X		X	X		X	

	Verbal Praise	Nonverbal Praise	Tokens of Praise	Praise for Academic Behavior	Praise for Social Behavior	Group Praise	Praise of Individual	Praise for Explicit Behavior	Praise for Nonexplicit Behavior	Immediate Praise	Delayed Praise
9. "Your patriotism is contagious," she told the class.	X				X	X		X		X	
10. The teacher admired John's choice of costume.		X			X		X		X	X	
11. The debators beamed with pride as the principal listed their achievements.	X			X		X		X		X	
12. Sally's service at the hospital was described by her English teacher.	X				X		X	X			X
13. A letter of commendation will be sent to the best citizen in the class.			X		X		X	X			X
14. The teacher smiled encouragingly to John as he read the difficult paragraph.		X		X			X	X		X	
15. John stood in front of the class as his leadership qualities were itemized.	X				X		X	X		X	
16. Mrs. Brown nodded to each student who correctly solved his chalkboard problem.		X		X			X	X		X	
17. "Mary uses such pretty colors!" exclaimed her teacher.	X				X		X		X	X	
18. "The valedictorian is Susan Brown," announced the principal.	X			X			X	X			X

Corrective Feedback Exercise

Answers - 1. C
2. B
3. D
4. C
5. B
6. B
7. C
8. C
9. D
10. C
11. C
12. A
13. D
14. C
15. C
16. C
17. A

V. Questioning - Transcript

Answers - 1. Lower-Order Memory
2. Lower-Order Memory or Analysis
3. Lower-Order Memory
4. Lower-Order Memory
5. Lower-Order Memory
6. Lower-Order Memory
7. Lower-Order Memory
8. Lower-Order Memory
9. Higher-Order Analysis
10. Higher-Order Evaluation (or) Interpretation
11. Higher-Order Translation (or) Interpretation
12. Higher-Order Evaluation
13. Repeat: Higher-Order Evaluation
14. Higher-Order Application
15. Higher-Order Synthesis
16. Repeat: Higher-Order Synthesis
17. Higher-Order Evaluation
18. Higher-Order Analysis (or) Synthesis
19. Higher-Order Application - also personalizing
20. Higher-Order Translation (or) Analysis
21. Higher-Order Analysis (or) Evaluation - also personalizing
22. Higher-Order Synthesis

SESSION II

Overview

Session II begins with the film, "Withdrawal Behavior". Represented in the film are student behaviors exhibited as pupil withdrawal, recognition of the problems, its causes, and how both student and teacher can avoid the problem.

"Classroom Management" combines positive reinforcement, group alerting, learner accountability and withitness into one section. The subtopic, "Positive Reinforcement" emphasizes a variety of positive reinforcement techniques to help teachers adapt to varied classroom situations and routines. Another of the subtopics, "Group Alerting" involves teacher behaviors designed to keep students alert in the classroom, while increasing pupil work involvement and reducing deviant behavior in the classroom. The concept of "Learner Accountability" is based on the teacher's use of accountability strategies in the classroom; thus, reflecting a higher degree of student work involvement and fewer class disruptions. The subtopic "Transitions" is concerned with classroom management techniques exhibited by the teacher for the purpose of facilitating the smooth transition from one classroom activity to another. Last of the subtopics in this section is "Withitness", which refers to the teacher behavior demonstrated due to her knowledge of what is going on in the classroom. To further clarify, the teacher, through communication with her children, is aware of what the children are actually doing and at the same time increasing student work involvement and decreasing any disruptive student behavior.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Withdrawal Behavior" and "Classroom Management". "Classroom Management" contains four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may complete them either individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Withdrawal Behavior *

1. Read and study the definition of "Withdrawal".
2. Using your own words, complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Review aggressive behavior and then complete the Post-Viewing Activities in small groups.
5. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing exercises with the program facilitator.
6. Read, study and supply the information needed for the subtopics, "Think a Little More About the Causes of Withdrawal" by working in small groups.

7. Choose a class period where withdrawal of students sometimes occurs, then complete the subtopic, "Now Use the Concept For Yourself".
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Classroom Management *

A. Positive Reinforcement

1. The facilitator will give an oral presentation over the following materials: "Classroom Management Through Positive Reinforcements"*; "Teacher Attention As a Reinforcer"; "Activities and Priviledges as Reinforcers."

B. Group Alerting

1. Read and study "Group Alerting - Description of the Concept".
2. Follow the instructions given, and complete the transcript "Group Alerting".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Learner Accountability

1. Read and study "Learner Accountability - Description of the Concept".
2. From instructions given, supply the necessary information for the transcript, "Learner Accountability" by working in small groups.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

D. Transitions

1. Read and study "Transitions - Description of the Concept".
2. Roleplay or write out on the sheet provided a classroom situation which incorporates one of the three behavioral indicators of transition. Write it or roleplay it first in a negative manner, then in a positive manner.

E. Withitness

1. Read and study "Withitness - Description of the Concept".
2. Follow the instructions given, and complete the transcript, "Withitness" in small groups.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

* Refer to page entitled, "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

ANSWERS TO SESSION II MATERIALS

I. Withdrawal Behavior - Post-Viewing Activities

Can you improve your first definition of pupil withdrawal?

Answer - A coping response to an overwhelming stimulus.

Make a new list of behaviors which indicate withdrawal.

Answer - Lowering of eyes
Silence
Physical movement away

II. Group Alerting - Transcript

Answers - 1. QT+
2. QT-
3. AC
4. NA
5. AC
6. RS-
7. AC
8. QT+
9. QT-
10. QT-
11. AC
12. RS+

III. Learner Accountability - Transcript

Answers - 1. GDP
2. PI
3. PI
4. NA
5. WS
6. GDP
7. GDP
8. GDP
9. WS
10. PI
11. PI
12. NA
13. WS
14. NA
15. WS
16. PI
17. NA

IV. Withitness - Transcript

Answers - 1. CP
2. SAB
3. DDB
4. D+
5. DDB
6. D+
7. CP
8. DDB
9. D-
10. CP
11. SAB

SESSION III

Overview

Session III begins with the section entitled "Supporting Behavior". After viewing the film entitled "Supporting Behavior", a teacher can better understand the effect supporting behavior has on the self-concept, emotional development, cognitive development, and social development of students.

"Teacher Language" contains four subtopics which stress the importance of effective teacher language. The first subtopic, "Clarity" suggests the use of precise, short, and simple statements or questions for explaining a concept or an idea. The second subtopic, "Organization", emphasizes the need for reviews of past subject matter and current subject matter at the beginning, the end, and other appropriate places during the lesson. The third subtopic, "Emphasis", points out effective techniques such as voice modulation, paraphrasing and cueing which indicate important points for students to remember. The last subtopic, "Feedback" imparts the need to solicit feedback from students to determine their understanding, interest, and attitude toward subject matter.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections entitled "Supporting Behavior" and "Teacher Language". "Teacher Language" has four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study the written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided you may test your learning comprehension by completing them individually or in small groups. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. 3e sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Supporting Behavior *

1. Read the opening statement and complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
2. View the film.
3. Review film observations by doing the Post-Viewing Activities in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
5. Read and study the subtopic, "The Concept of Self is a Product of Transactions With Others".
6. Complete in your own words the exercise, "Proposed Effects of Supporting Behavior" while working in small groups.
7. After observing one of your students, do the exercise, "Actual Effects of Supporting Behavior".
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Teacher Language*

A. Clarity

1. Read and study "Clarity - Description of the Concept".
2. Check your learning comprehension by doing the transcript, "Clarity".
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

B. Organization**

1. Read and study "Organization -Description of the Concept".
2. After reading the concept or during the presentation, fill in the necessary information on the "Organization" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Organization" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

C. Emphasis**

1. Read and study "Emphasis - Description of the Concept".
2. After reading about the concept or during the presentation, provide the necessary information for the "Emphasis" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Emphasis" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

D. Feedback**

1. Read and study "Feedback - Description of the Concept".
2. After reading about the concept or during the presentation, test your understanding by doing the "Feedback" worksheet.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
4. Present a role playing exercise on "Feedback" or develop a series of teacher statements that demonstrate this concept.

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* Refer to page entitled, "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

** Note - The facilitator may assign these topics to small groups for presentation to the entire class.

ANSWERS TO SESSION III MATERIALS

I. Supporting Behavior - Post-Viewing Activities

Begin to organize your thoughts by restating the film definition for supporting behavior.

Answers - Hold up
Defend
Guidance
Emotional support
Feel secure, power, control over environment
Encouraged student ideas
"Sustain, uphold, and defend"

List the supporting behaviors that you observed in the film. (List only what you saw not what you may have inferred).

Answers - "Want to talk about it"
Stayed with pupil
Keep others from interfering
Repeat others ideas
Physically showed interest

II. Clarity - Transcript

Answers -
1. Sq+
2. Ds
3. NA
4. Pl-
5. Pl-
6. Ds
7. Ds
8. Dt
9. Sq-
10. NA
11. Pl+
12. Ds
13. Sq+
14. Pl+
15. Dt or Pl+
16. Sq+
17. Pl+

III. Organization - Worksheet

Answers - 1. State the principle underlying the concept ORGANIZATION in your own words. Model answer: Teacher language that helps the student organize his learning and place it in context to increase student achievement.

Example of satisfactory restatement of principle: The teacher can use language so that the student can better organize his learning and place it in context. This helps increase student achievement.

2. Name and briefly define four teacher language skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the classroom to apply ORGANIZATION. Model answers:

(a) Name: Teacher Elicits Review--At the start of the lesson and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher frames questions to elicit from students review of relevant past learning.

(b) Name: Teacher Reviews--At the beginning and as needed throughout the lesson, the teacher supplies a review of relevant past learning.

(c) Name: Terminal Structure--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher adds content relevant information which has not been covered in the lesson discussion.

(d) Name: Summary Review--Near the end of the lesson, the teacher reviews the main ideas and the essential content of the lesson.

IV. Emphasis - Worksheet

Answers - 1. State the principle underlying the concept EMPHASIS in your own words. Model answer: Verbal emphasis indicating important content tends to increase student achievement.

Example of satisfactory restatement of principle: By verbally emphasizing important content, a teacher can increase student achievement.

2. Name and briefly define three teacher language skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the classroom to apply EMPHASIS. Model answers:

(a) Name: Voice Modulation. Definition: The teacher uses voice tone and inflection to point out and emphasize main or important facts or concepts.

(b) Name: Paraphrasing. Definition: The teacher repeats the most important content of either a student response or of her own remarks using different words or phrases.

(c) Name: Cueing. Definition: The teacher calls the learner's attention to important points by using phrases such as "this is important," or "be sure to remember this."

V. Feedback - Worksheet

Answers - 1. State the principle underlying the concept FEEDBACK in your own words. Model answer: Teacher solicitation and use of student feedback facilitates adjustment of the learning situation to meet student needs.

Example of satisfactory restatement of principle: The teacher should use student feedback to adapt the future learning sequence, and to improve student performance by diagnosing student weaknesses, student interests, and student perceptions of relevance.

2. Name and briefly define three teacher solicitation skills (behavioral indicators) that can be used in the class room to apply FEEDBACK. Model answers:

(a) Name: Soliciting Feedback Related to Student Understanding. Definition: By questioning, the teacher determines the level of student understanding regarding the specific subject matter or ideas that have been covered in the lesson.

(b) Name: Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Interest. Definition: Through questioning and observation, the teacher identifies those areas of the curriculum that arouse student interest.

(c) Name: Soliciting Feedback Related to Pupil Attitude. Definition: The teacher frames questions which are designed to determine student perception of the relevance of the curricular materials.

SESSION IV

Overview

"Reciprocating Behavior" is the first section of Session IV. The film presented helps a teacher identify reciprocating behavior. Through mutual exchange of ideas, the teacher can facilitate more opportunities for reticent or reluctant pupils to participate in classroom discussions.

"Instructional Concepts", containing three subtopics, presents the idea of conceptualizing the instruction process in order to make improvements in component parts of the process. The first subtopic, "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction" suggests alternate ways of looking at the total instruction process along with the variables that affect this process. By looking at verbal interaction in the subtopic, "Verbal Interaction In The Cognitive Dimension: The Relationship Between Teacher Verbal Behavior and Student Response", a teacher can become familiar with a matrix classifying modes of teacher verbal behavior that will generate productive verbal behavior from the student. The subtopic, "Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships" emphasizes the need to teach subject matter in a logical sequence and conceptualize all information into relevant categories.

Directions

This supplement contains two sections, "Reciprocating Behavior" and "Instructional Concepts". Instructional Concepts" contains three subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided you may complete them individually or in small groups to test your learning comprehension. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Reciprocating Behavior*

1. Read and study the introduction and definition of "Reciprocating Behavior."
2. In your own words, complete the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. Classify film instances of reciprocating behavior in the Post-Viewing Activities by working in small groups.
5. Check your answers with the program facilitator.
6. Think of an example of reciprocating behavior that happened to you, then do the subtopic, "You and Reciprocating Behavior".
7. Read and study the subtopic, "More On Reciprocating Behavior".

8. Pick a class session to encourage reciprocating behavior and provide the necessary information for the subtopic, "Your Class and Reciprocating Behavior".
9. Plan a teaching strategy for students reluctant to participate in classroom discussions by completing the subtopics, "Apply The Concept To Your Own Classroom".
10. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activities in the next session.

Instructional Concepts*

A. Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction

1. Read and study "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction".
   **Refer to the teaching aid, "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction" for hints on lesson presentation.
2. View the film, "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction."
3. Complete the "Model Building" exercise on "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction" in small groups.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

B. Verbal Interaction

1. Read and study "Verbal Interaction In The Cognitive Dimension: The Relationship Between Teacher Verbal Behavior and Student Response".
2. Using the page entitled "The Analytical Framework" of the subtopic you just read, complete the transcript, "Classroom #1 and #2, by identifying the verbal behavior of the teacher or student. Place your answer in the space provided by each number. There is an answer for every number.
3. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

C. Organizing Facts

1. Read and study "Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships".
   **Refer to teaching aid, "Concept Teaching" for additional information.
2. Read and study "Concept Teaching".
3. Using as a reference your previous reading on verbal indicators of concept teaching, complete the transcript "Organizing Facts to Teach Meaningful Relationships". Indicate in the space provided by each number, the verbal indicator that identifies the underlined portions of the teacher's conversation.
4. Check your answers with the program facilitator.

* Refer to page entitled, "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

** For facilitator's use.

TEACHING AID
CONCEPTUALIZING THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION

THIS TEACHING AID IS A SUGGESTED METHOD OF PRESENTATION BY THE FACILITATOR ON THE SECTION, "CONCEPTUALIZING THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION." ADDITIONAL INFORMATION IS GIVEN TO FURTHER EXPLAIN VARIOUS CONCEPTS DISCUSSED IN THE SECTION.

Give out introductory materials and allow time for participants to read.

We're interested in what you observe when you look at a classroom. I'm going to show a film of two classroom situations (please ignore the fact that they are of elementary classrooms--and remember that we're only trying to establish a point or idea). I want you to write down what you see happening in each of these classrooms. (like students answering questions, teacher giving directions, students not paying attention, teacher reprimanding, etc.) Make a separate list for each of the classroom episodes.

Show film: "Conceptualizing The Process of Instruction."

Now in small groups, compile the observations into one list for each classroom episode. Then develop a classification system of at least three headings to encompass all observations on both lists (example--living things are divided into plants and animals).

Write headings on the board that each group develops.

Alright, which allows the teacher the best focus and most flexibility for describing what is happening and why? Test the classification system to see if all observations can be listed under these major headings.

Give out the Model Building handout and have each group design a model of the instruction process.
Have each group explain their model. Put an example of the model on the board.

Okay, think back to classroom episodes #1 and #2 that we just saw. Did you observe differences in the two classrooms? Where were the differences? Answer: in teacher
in student
in learning environment

Alright, then factors comprising instruction vary from classroom to classroom. These variables influence the process of instruction.

We can see that variables exist between classroom #1 and #2. Are there any variables within a single classroom? Look at classroom #2, are there specific behaviors the teacher can manipulate, change, or control? Answer: The way the teacher asks questions, attitude toward incorrect answers, explanation techniques, and change in group arrangement may result in change of student behavior. All of these things are variables.

What are some things a teacher has no control over? Answer: time of day, weather, background of students, certain teacher characteristics. These are not variables.

Which of these teacher and student behaviors are interacting with other behaviors? Answer: student background and teacher's manner of questioning, student answer interacting with teacher response, and the perception of that interaction influencing what other students say.

In other words, there is an interaction between students, teacher, and the situation which yields outcomes or learnings.

This is just an attempt to get you to look at the entire process of instruction. By looking at component parts and their relationships, you can better understand how behaviors (teacher and student), situations, and events fit into and influence the instructional process.

TEACHING AID - CONCEPT TEACHING

THE FOLLOWING TEACHING AID SUGGESTS A METHOD OF PRESENTING THE SECTION "CONCEPT TEACHING" FOR THE FACILITATOR.

Give out introductory materials, "Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships," and then "Concept Teaching." After the participants have read the latter, ask the following question:

What are some attributes of concept learning or concept attainment--from the definitions? Answer: Identifying, classifying or grouping, organizing, relating, applying, testing, creating original examples.

Give out Teacher Behaviors Characteristic of Concept Teaching, Verbal Indicators of Concept Teaching, and Verbal Indicators: Non-Instances of Concept Teaching, and allow time for the participants to read.

Discuss.

Give out transcript to be analyzed and completed by the participants. This can be done in small groups.

Discuss the answers to the transcript.

ANSWERS TO SESSION IV MATERIALS

I. Reciprocating Behavior - Post-Viewing Activities

The following activities will help you to become more observant - to identify instances of reciprocating behavior when they do occur, and to recognize opportunities for using reciprocating behavior to stimulate pupils.

Review in your mind the examples of reciprocating behavior depicted in the film. Use the table below to summarize three examples. Describe the teacher in Column A; the pupil(s) in Column B. Use the middle columns to record the behavior expressed by the teacher, and the pupil response which the teacher hoped to stimulate.

(ANSWERS)

TEACHER ⇄ PUPILS

Name/Description	Behavior Expressed	Response Sought	Name/Description
1	Showed pictures of his friends	To get student to talk about self and friends	
2	Give opinion of the value of dam	Trying to get student's ideas on dam	
3	Wanted to help students bring up their grades	Students suggested how to help each other	

A

B

In each case the teacher attempted to stimulate pupil(s) by structuring an exchange, saying in effect, "I'll do it first, then it's your turn." The teacher's expressed behaviors were both models of what to do and invitations to respond in kind.

II. Verbal Interaction - Transcript

Classroom # 1

Answers -
1. Reproving
2. Confirming, acquiescing
3. Directing
4. Affirming, reproving, directing
5. Self-reproving, acquiescing
6. Probing
7. Reproducing facts, evaluating
8. Ignoring

Classroom # 2

Answers -
1. Facilitating
2. Explicating
3. Accepting
4. Elaborating
5. Accepting, Clarifying
6. Confirming
7. Divergent association
8. Divergent association
9. Accepting, supporting, clarifying
10. Facilitating
11. Explicating
12. Qualifying
13. Facilitating
14. Elaborating
15. Accepting, clarifying
16. Elaborating
17. Accepting, supporting, directing

III. Organizing Facts To Teach Meaningful Relationships - Transcript

Answers -
1. Image or definition of concept (1)
2. Brainstorm (2)
3. Use of aid (3)
4. To identify (2)
5. Apply concept (6)
6. Explain (5)
7. Example of concept or apply concept (5) or (6)
8. Enumerate common properties (2)
9. Explain (5)
10. Brainstorm (2)
11. Apply concept or give examples (5) or (6)
12. Explain (5)
13. Explain (5)
14. Image or characteristics of concept (1)
15. Teacher example (4)
16. Explain (5)
17. Explain (5)
18. Image or characteristics of concept (2)

SESSION V

Overview

Session V begins with the film, "Closing Behavior". Classroom teachers can socialize their students into a non-participant or participant mode of behavior through the use of closing behavior. It becomes evident in the film that unsupported verbal attempts forces the student to become dependent on the teacher.

The section, "Group Process" contains four subtopics that consider various roles of group members. The subtopic, "Anti Group Roles" illustrates negative behaviors found in group activities that may destroy morale or inhibit achievement. Another subtopic, "Task Roles" leads the way to successful problem solving or accomplishing group goals. "Unifying Roles", the third subtopic, states the importance of group facilitators who help build and maintain group unity. The final subtopic, "Stages of Group Growth", familiarizes one with the four phases of group growth: initial communication, conflict which blocks group achievement,resolution of the conflict, and increased productivity.

Directions

This session contains two sections entitled, "Closing Behavior" and "Group Process." "Group Process" contains four subtopics. In each section you will be asked to read and study written information. Where transcripts or exercises are provided, you may test your learning comprehension by completing them individually or in small groups. Below you will find directions for the completion of each section. Read the directions carefully before you begin, to insure successful completion of each section. Be sure to check the answers with the facilitator.

Closing Behavior *

1. Read and study the explanation and definition of "Closing Behavior."
2. From past experiences provide the needed information for the Pre-Viewing Activities.
3. View the film.
4. From examples in the film, complete the Post-Viewing Activities.
5. Check your answers to the Post-Viewing Activities with the program facilitator.
6. Read and study the subtopic, "More About Closing Behavior".
7. From a taped episode of your class, identify the way you used closing behavior for the exercise in the subtopic, "Now Try It For Yourself!"
8. Be prepared to discuss the above classroom activity in the next session.

Group Process *

A. Anti-Group Roles

1. Read and study "Anti-Group Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. View the film, "Anti-Group Roles."
3. Discuss "Anti-Group Roles" with the group.

B. Task Roles

1. Read and study "Task Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. Complete the transcript "Group Process: Task Roles".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

C. Unifying Roles

1. Read and study "Unifying Roles - Description of the Concept".
2. Provide the necessary information for the transcript, "Group Process: Unifying Roles".
3. Check your answers with the group facilitator.

D. Stages of Group Growth

1. Read and study "Stages of Group Growth - Description of the Concept".
2. View the film, "Stages of Group Growth."
3. Discuss "Stages of Group Growth" with the group.

* Refer to page entitled, "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

ANSWERS TO SESSION V MATERIALS

I. Closing Behavior - Post-Viewing Activities

The following activities will help you become more sensitive to the occurrence of closing behavior. You will become skilled in recognizing closing behavior and more thoughtful about its use.

Recall the examples in the film. In the table below list: a) those closing behaviors which were most noticeable; b) those which you really had to look for.

Closing Behavior Observed in Film

(Answers)

	A	B	
+ -	MOST OBVIOUS	LESS OBVIOUS	+ -
-	Boy lost place (shift attention to another pupil)	Teacher went from reader to reader	+ -
+ -	Teacher terminated conversation after answer	Teacher failed to identify hand	-
-	Teacher did not pursue "no response"	Barrage of questions	+ -
		Teacher ignors student answer 1) Goes to next question 2) Answers own question	 + - -
		Teacher didn't elaborate on answers	-

Put a plus (+) by those closing behaviors which seemed to be necessary to "proper" teaching procedure. Put a minus (-) by those which seemed likely to inhibit pupil development. Examine your reasons for judgement.

II. Task Roles - Transcript

Answers - 1. Initiating (proposing new way to attack task)

2. Initiating (offering new idea)

3. Initiating (offering new idea)

4. Initiating (suggesting solution to a problem)

5. Information seeking (requesting facts)

6. Information seeking (requesting facts)

7. Information seeking (requesting facts)

8. Information seeking (requesting facts)

9. Information seeking (requesting facts)

10. Information seeking (requesting opinions)

11. Information giving (offering facts)

12. Information giving (offering facts)

13. Information giving (offering personal experience and facts)

14. Opinion Giving (starting own belief relevant to group's concern)

15. Opinion Giving (stating own attitude)

16. Opinion Giving (stating own belief)

17. Orienting (questions general directions of discussion)

18. Orienting (brings group back to subject)

19. Orienting (brings group back to subject)

20. Coordinating (takes consensus and establishes relationship between ideas)

21. Coordinating (summarizes)

22. Coordinating (pulls ideas together)

III. Unifying Roles - Transcript

Answers -

1. Gatekeeping (helps keep communication channels open)
2. Gatekeeping (facilitating participation of others)
3. Gatekeeping (promotes active participation of group members)
4. Energizing (prods group to action)
5. Energizing (prods group, stimulates interest)
6. Energizing (arouses group to higher level of activity)
7. Harmonizing (proposes a solution acceptable to both parties)
8. Harmonizing (attempts to mediate differences among other group members)
9. Harmonizing (attempts to mediate differences)
10. Compromising (agree to alter stands)
11. Compromising (agrees to defer judgment so group can move on toward goal)
12. Compromising (alters stand)
13. Encouraging (praises contributions of group members)
14. Encouraging (agrees with and praises contributions of group)
15. Encouraging (supports other group members)

SESSION VI

Overview

This supplement explains the theory and mechanics of role-playing. The section, "Theory: The Role Playing Model", points out the idea that role playing can be used in many different situations. One important advantage of this technique is that it encourages the use of emotions and intellectual ability. Shaftel and Shaftel suggest that roleplaying preparation should include warming up the group, selecting participants, preparing observers, setting the stage, enactment, evaluation, reenactment, more evaluation, and finally drawing generalizations.

In the section, "Role Playing: Critical Skills", emphasis is put on specific planning for the role playing activity. Through questioning, the teacher can emphasize feelings, values, problem-solving skills, or subject matter exploration. With a definite focus in mind, the teacher can plan a story with an appropriate sequence of events for the students to act out and discuss. The teacher must adequately facilitate the role-playing exercise to sucessfully attain the planned goals.

Directions

For this session, you will be asked to read and study about the theory of role playing and critical skills necessary to complete the role playing activity. Classroom activities include a tape presentation and a role playing exercise. Read the following directions carefully before you begin, to complete this session successfully. (An oral report can be presented by an individual with expertise in this area).

Role Playing *

1. Read and study "Theory: The Role Playing Model".
2. Read and study "Role Playing: Critical Skills".
3. View the video training tape.*
4. Demonstrate this concept by having four or five class members present a role-playing activity.

* Refer to page entitled "Source of Materials" for address of materials utilized.

Source of Materials*

1975-76 Protocal Materials
National Resource and Dissemination Center
University of South Florida
Tampa, Florida 33620

The films and materials utilized in the following educational concepts were adopted and modified from the above source:

Classroom Interaction
Classroom Management
Group Process
Instructional Concepts
Teacher Language

Interactions in the Multicultural Classroom
Science Research Association, Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

The following films and respective film guides were adopted and modified from the above source:

Aggressive Behavior
Closing Behavior
Reciprocating Behavior
Supporting Behavior
Withdrawal Behavior

Models of Teaching by Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil
Prentice Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey

The materials utilized in the following educational concept were adopted and modified from the above source:

Role Playing

Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching
Stanford University
Stanford, California

The video training tapes utilized in the role playing session were prepared by Bruce Joyce at the above source.

Mini-Course 23 - "Classroom Management Through Positive Reinforcement"

Far West Laboratory for Education Research and Development
1855 Folsum Street
San Francisco, California 94103

The materials utilized in the following educational concept were adopted and modified from the above source:

Classroom Management Through Positive Reinforcement

* The researchers found all of the above films to be available at no cost from the Audio-Visual Service Center, Media Services, at Western Kentucky University. Those wishing to utilize these films should check with the Media Service Division at the nearest state institution of higher education.